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# **REVIEW of EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH**

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**HISTORY OF EDUCATION AND COMPARATIVE  
EDUCATION**

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**AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION**

**A Department of the  
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION**

**1201 SIXTEENTH STREET NORTHWEST**

**WASHINGTON, D. C.**

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**Volume IX****October 1939****Number 4**

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## HISTORY OF EDUCATION AND COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

Reviews the literature for the three years ending April 1939.  
Earlier literature was reviewed in Vol. VI, No. 4.

Prepared by the Committee:

M. M. Chambers, *Chairman*; H. G. Good, Herman G. Richey, Wayne W. Soper,  
George D. Strayer, Jr., and Fletcher Harper Swift,

with the cooperation of:

James F. Abel, Mowat G. Fraser, Ernesto Galarza, Nicholas Hans, Franklin J.  
Keller, Walter M. Kotschnig, W. Bryant Mumford, Joseph S. Roucek, Mary Elizabeth  
Smith, and John Williamson.

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## INTRODUCTION

THE TWO FIELDS dealt with in this number of the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH were previously treated in the issue for October 1936. The first part of the present number is devoted to studies of the history of education in the United States. Historical works are cited also in subsequent chapters, but only incidentally. Comparative education, comprising the second part of this issue, is defined as embracing not only comparisons between two or more countries, but also the practices in any one country, other than the United States, which may contribute to an understanding of variations in education throughout the world. It is scarcely possible to include within a single issue of the REVIEW summaries covering all countries. Accordingly, effort has been made to include certain important regions not treated in 1936, as well as certain countries in which significant educational changes have occurred since that year. In the case of areas or topics not touched upon in the earlier number, landmark studies appearing prior to 1936 have been freely included.

The members of the Committee and the cooperating specialists have fitted their contributions into narrow space limits. Some have selected only a few outstanding works to be critically reviewed, while others have preferred to treat more briefly a larger selection. Some have included additional entries in their bibliographies for the convenience of readers who may desire a key to pertinent publications which could not be summarized within the space allotted.

Educational problems and policies in other lands, as well as the history of education in our own country, are rich in values for American students and practitioners of education. Historical and comparative studies merit continued and increasing attention and support by the profession.

To its collaborators, abroad and in the United States, the Committee is grateful, and wishes to record its appreciation of their services.

M. M. CHAMBERS, *Chairman,*  
*Committee on History of Education*  
*and Comparative Education*

THE [illegible] OF [illegible]

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## CHAPTER I

### Preschool Education<sup>1</sup>

HERMAN G. RICHEY

AS RECENTLY AS 1929, Meek, in writing the introduction to the twenty-eighth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, *Preschool and Parental Education* (21), felt obliged to define among others, the term "preschool." This term, she stated, was of recent currency and not easily defined. For the purposes of the yearbook, the word was used to comprise the whole period of infancy and early childhood, from birth to entrance into the elementary school at the age of six or seven. Although there are few historical treatments of education during early infancy to consider and although the kindergarten has come to be quite generally recognized as an integrant part of the elementary school, the broad application of the term suggested by Meek has been employed in this chapter.

The most comprehensive account of preschool education in America is by Forest (5). This book was published more than ten years ago, however, and must therefore be supplemented by the same author's more recent article (6) in the *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, Cubberley (2), and numerous brief journal articles. The twenty-eighth yearbook (21), almost as old as Forest's work, is also useful. In the foregoing publications, the origin and development of the child-study movement, the infant school, the kindergarten, the nursery school, and the relation of these institutions to each other, to philosophical movements, to social trends, and to the public school are traced. More detailed statements are to be found in studies limited to single aspects of the preschool movement.

#### The Infant School

*The dame school*—In the early years of our history, children were, for the most part, expected to be able to read, and sometimes to write, when admitted to the town or other organized schools. The elements were taught in the home or in the dame school, the latter, representing our first large scale activity in connection with the education of very young children, has been described by Cubberley (2) and Parker (22). These general works should be supplemented by Johnson's more vivacious treatment (14), Seybolt's study (26) of private schools in Colonial Boston, and the more systematic account found in P. Monroe's *Cyclopedia of Education* (18).

*European infant school introduced*—The infant-school idea introduced into Boston during the second decade of the nineteenth century was adopted in other cities, but in them as well as in Boston, the schools established

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 412.



soon became a part of the public school system, either as primary schools or primary departments of the existing schools (2). Rusk (25) and Raymond (23) have traced the European background of infant education and schools. W. S. Monroe (19) described Owen's infant school at New Harmony which was modeled after the earlier Owen school at New Lanarch. The failure of the infant school to maintain itself in America is responsible for the lack of historical accounts of it except very brief ones found in general texts (2, 24).

### The Kindergarten

Where the infant-school idea was strong, as in England, the kindergarten movement was slow. In America the absorption of the infant school into the public school which quite generally raised the age of admission to six or seven years, made possible the early spread of the kindergarten idea (2).

The kindergarten movement in the United States is outlined in a pamphlet published by the Association for Childhood Education (1). This outline must be supplemented by Vandewalker's old but essential survey (29) of the first fifty years' progress. The twelve chapters of her study review the beginning and extension of the kindergarten; the kindergarten as promoted by churches, Sunday schools, missions, women's clubs, and settlements; the kindergarten in the public school system and its influence upon elementary education. Although adequate in most respects for the period to 1908, this work should be supplemented by the rather extensive volume, *Pioneers of the Kindergarten in America* (12); Jenkins' account (13) of how the kindergarten found its way to America; and a brief article by Holmes (11). For the more recent period the foregoing works should be supplemented by the standard texts (2, 22) and short articles by Gage (7) and Temple (27). Changes made in the curriculum during the first quarter of the twentieth century were traced in Hill's study (10). The status of the kindergarten and of the laws affecting young children may be traced in the *Addresses and Proceedings of the National Education Association* (20), which also presented facts relating to the establishment of the Department of Kindergarten-Primary Education and the records of its meetings from 1884 to date. These volumes should be supplemented by various publications of the United States Office of Education (28).

### Nursery Schools

The development of the nursery school and nursery education in America may be traced, not as might be expected, to the earlier development of the day nursery but to the influence of Froebel, the child-study movement inaugurated in the 1890's by G. Stanley Hall, and to the more recent recognition by psychologists, educators, and research centers of the fundamental importance of the preschool period of childhood. The history of

the child-study movement has not been written but some materials on the earlier aspects of the movement may be found in the *Cyclopedia of Education* (18) and in an article by MacDonald (16). The more recent developments have been traced in introductory chapters of textbooks in child psychology and the work of particular institutions has been described in the yearbook *Preschool and Parental Education* (21) and in numerous short articles.

For the most part, nursery schools are new institutions. In 1932, Davis and Hansen (3) stated that of the 196 in operation, all except three had been established since 1920. Meek (17) traced the development between 1919 and 1929 and numerous short articles have dealt with aspects of the development of these schools since the latter date. The more useful treatments, however, are in the form of introductory chapters of books dealing with the theory and practice of preschool education. The survey of day nurseries, nursery schools, and private kindergartens by the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection (30), although not primarily historical, is also useful. The aforementioned yearbook (21) presented brief historical sketches of individual institutions. Other brief and generally inadequate historical accounts of particular schools are found in the introductory paragraphs of publications of agencies maintaining nursery schools or promoting nursery education and in short articles in educational journals. Earle (4) showed that the organization of these schools varied with the purpose of the founders, the location, and the means of support available. Gesell (8) pointed out the importance of the new scientific interest in early childhood in the development of the nursery school. Forest (5), Lockhead (15), and Henton (9) compared the development that has taken place in England with that which has occurred in the United States. Existing accounts of other aspects of nursery education are even less historical in nature than those cited above.

As yet the history of the education of very young children in America has not been written. The historian who some day views all periods of our history, notes the characteristics of the social order in each, comprehends the importance of children in the society of each period, and discovers the attitude of society toward its children in each age will be able to interpret, as has not yet been interpreted, the history of our varied but continued efforts to train children of preschool age.

## CHAPTER II

### Elementary Education<sup>1</sup>

GEORGE D. STRAYER, JR.

#### Activity Concept

**M**OSSMAN (35) COMPILED A BRIEF OUTLINE consisting of dates, names of individuals, and one of their publications or some statement relating the individual to the activity concept. This outline began with the fifteenth century and ended with modern times. It is selective rather than inclusive.

#### Army Schools

Iverson (33) studied the post schools established under the jurisdiction of the United States Army. He found that they were established by act of Congress in 1821 and in 1838 Congress provided that chaplains might be employed for remote military posts to perform also the duties of schoolmaster. Although in the beginning these schools were established to teach the children of enlisted men the minimum essentials, about 1841 they were expanded to give instruction to the enlisted men themselves.

#### State School Systems

Wickiser (36) traced the development of a system of public schools in Illinois from 1818 to 1868. He showed the difficulties in establishing publicly supported common schools and the changes which took place in the subjects offered by them. According to this study it was not until 1849 that towns began to levy taxes willingly for the support of the common schools; by 1867 only one school in twenty was graded; in the same year 131 teacher institutes were held; and by 1868 the state had virtually accepted the responsibility of supporting a state school system.

Wickiser found that while there was a tendency to place control in the school district, many private schools were in existence in 1868. The public schools attempted to relate the curriculum to the preservation of the state, and the private schools worked largely to train leaders for society and the church. Accordingly, the public schools tended to have a broader program of studies than the private schools. There was a tendency for the people in the southern part of Illinois to favor privately controlled schools and for the people in the northern part to prefer public schools.

Holt's study (32) was concerned with the state school system in Tennessee and included much information on elementary education. Holt found that, in 1902, the district primary school consisted of five grades;

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 413.

the average school term for the state was 95 days; attendance was not required; and a movement was underway to shift the administration of schools from the district to the county. The study indicated the importance of the contributions of the General Education Board, the Southern Educational Association, and the Conference for Education in the South in improving schools.

Other important steps in the development of elementary schools mentioned were: (a) General Education Bill of 1909, (b) compulsory school attendance for children between the ages of eight and fourteen for eighty consecutive days, in 1913, (c) the establishment of an equalizing fund for counties having less than a seven months' elementary-school term, in 1919, (d) the apportionment of most of the state's elementary-school fund on the basis of A. D. A. rather than scholastic population, in 1921, and (e) the preparation of a course of study for elementary grades in 1913 and in 1921. The following changes took place between 1925 and 1936 according to Holt: In 1925 an eight months' elementary-school term was guaranteed to counties that would levy a fifty cent elementary tax rate and pay their teachers according to a state salary schedule. In 1933 the legislature approved a bond issue, part of which was to be spent for the payment of overdue salaries to teachers. Provision was made for a special educational commission.

The development of schools in the state of Pennsylvania from 1801 to 1935 was described by McCadden (34).

### **Trends during the Past Decade**

A summarization of the tendencies in elementary education during the past ten years by Woody (37) stated the following as trends: the scope of education was broadened; there was wide acceptance of the unit basis of instruction; the social studies were generally chosen as the core of the curriculum; more instructional materials and experiences were provided than in the past; a new type of report card was widely adopted; and ideas on the classification of pupils were modified.

### **Developments during the Last Century**

The development of effective schooling on a universal basis was outlined by Bagley (31). The outstanding individuals who have helped to develop the public schools were named and some of the contributions and problems of the universal school in the United States were considered. Bagley stated that while the schools have not been a negative force, they have apparently become increasingly ineffective and that four reasons for this have been (a) the low standards of training for teachers, (b) the high rate of teacher turnover, (c) the lack of a sufficient number of men teachers, and (d) the tendency for problems facing teachers to increase in difficulty with the advance of civilization.

## CHAPTER III

### Secondary Education<sup>1</sup>

WAYNE W. SOPER

**T**HE RAPID EXPANSION of the secondary school in the United States has made it a prolific source of educational literature, the larger proportion of which, however, is descriptive and expository rather than historical. Genuine research, during the three years covered by this issue of the REVIEW, into the historical development of this level of our educational system is not plentiful, but if the line is not drawn too closely a considerable body of literature appears.

#### Secondary Education in General

*Underlying philosophy*—A few writers attempted to formulate the philosophical principles underlying secondary education as developed during its comparatively short history in this country. Betz (40), in an approach too little employed, analyzed the underlying philosophical, psychological, and sociological aspects of secondary education brought about by social and economic changes that have taken place, and Sexson (60) enumerated seventeen principles basic to secondary education and outlined movements conducive to progress. Spaulding (63) developed the concept of social competency as the primary outcome of secondary education. Fox (48) envisioned the significance of this level of education in terms of the values and ideals cherished by the society it serves. Near the opening of the century, according to Wrinkle (65), the dominant philosophy of secondary education was that this level of instruction was for the wealthy few and the abstractly intelligent. Social changes modified this philosophy into one of sympathetic approval of secondary education for the masses. Briggs (42) asserted that the greatest hindrance to the development of a satisfactory program of secondary education is the lack of agreement on a philosophy of education.

*Secondary education and social changes*—Beatty (39) and Wrinkle (65) pointed out the tardiness of secondary education in adjusting to new conditions while Briggs (41) and Leevy (55) presented some evidence to show that educators are veering away from traditionalism and are adopting an attitude favorable to discovering the real goals of secondary education. That all the new is not best and all the old worst was the opinion of Tildsley (64) in his narrative of the fifty years of secondary education through which he had lived, deploring in particular the let-down in quality of work and the panicky rush on the part of administrators to find something for pupils of low learning and less ability to do. The spectacular

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 413.



expansion of secondary education due to declining employment, urbanization, specialization, and standardization of industrial processes as commented on by the Educational Policies Commission (57) was characterized by Kandel (53) as a period of unrest. Cox (45) raised the question as to whether the high school should survive in view of changed conditions that are remaking educational institutions, just as previous conditions caused the demise of the academy and the classical high school. Gregg (49) emphasized the social nature of the secondary school and indicated that we must broaden its program to include training once provided by the home and the church but not now generally found in those institutions.

*Origin and development*—Although the literature on the origin and development of secondary education still ranks high in the productivity of writers on education, most of it for the period under consideration is of an ancillary nature—a background for other treatments. One comprehensive chronology was issued in pamphlet form by the North Carolina state superintendent of public instruction (58) commemorating three hundred years of American high-school development. In it are historical data by states, epochal legislation, and other significant events marking the high spots of secondary education's progress. Engelhardt and Overn (47), Wrinkle (66), and Briggs (42) restated the beginnings of secondary education from Latin grammar school to academy and academy to public high school. Cox (45) recognized the existence of the classical high school following the decline of the academy and prior to the establishment of the public high school. Most of these writers agree that the secondary school is not a planned institution but has reached its present form and status to meet the needs of a virile and progressive people living under a rapidly changing social order.

The origin and development of secondary education in New York were treated by Burke (43) and Fox (48), the former stressing legislation, the latter cause and effect. Tildsley (64) had reference to New York City when narrating the events between his attendance upon high-school instruction as a student and his present experience, but also referred to the development of secondary education in general. Douglass (46) traced the popularization of secondary education from early beginnings, its reorganization according to periods of time, together with the influences that were brought to bear on this reorganization, such as the Committee of Ten in 1893, the Commission for the Reorganization of Secondary Education authorized in 1913, and the economy of time movement. Gregg (49) and Marcus (56) contrasted the schools of yesterday with those of today, emphasizing the present problem of providing for the educational needs of a great mass of unselected pupils. Judd (52), contrasting the Latin schools of Colonial days with the academies and the academies with the high schools of today, said: "The modern secondary school . . . is so cosmopolitan in its curriculum and so inclusive in its pupil population that it stands out as a social phenomenon unparalleled in the civilized world." He reminded us

that the American high school did not adhere to the pattern of the Latin school or the academy. The American system grew from below upward, the European from the top downward.

*Growth in number and size*—Several authors already mentioned and a few others (44, 49, 51, 56, 57, 58, 59) reported the numerical growth of secondary education. Data given pertained to: (a) number and kind of secondary schools, (b) enrolments, (c) proportion of the secondary-school population in attendance, (d) proportion of total population in attendance, (e) ratio of elementary enrolment to secondary, (f) number of departments, (g) number of subjects and courses, and (h) proportion of graduates entering higher institutions. The expansion of secondary education during the past four decades has been spectacular. Rogers (59) attributed this growth to five causes: improved economic condition of the average family, more effective compulsory attendance, larger number of children of high-school age, technological unemployment, and enriched curriculum.

*Trends and predictions*—In addition to statistical data concerned with the numerical growth of secondary education, several studies dealt with trends and a few ventured to predict what the secondary school of the future will be. Cox (45) and Wrinkle (66) implied that the present high school might be supplanted by a different institution in response to current needs and pressures. Hunkins (50), championing the cause of the small high school, saw in the progress of events hope for the small school through enlightened leadership and trained administrators. Jessen (51), in a type of bulletin that should be made available at intervals of a few years, followed the trend of secondary education with particular emphasis on (a) provision for individual differences, (b) the reorganization movement, (c) provision for continuing and supplementing the education of high-school graduates, and (d) vocational education. Based upon events of the past forty years, Keppel (54) envisioned certain probable changes for the future of secondary education. According to Sexson (60, 61) the long accepted pattern of secondary education is breaking up and a new institution designed to perform functions and render services not now encompassed by the high school is to rise in its place. This new institution will extend through the fourteenth grade—an eight-year secondary school with a functional program of vocational education, adult education, a variety of guidance services, and new values to replace traditional and arbitrary values. Anderson (38) showed that the trend of secondary-school organization in Ohio was away from the four-year school to the six-year, or the junior-senior high-school type of organization.

### **The Junior High School**

*Origin, development, and trends*—As a separate level of secondary-school organization the junior high school has not commanded a great deal of attention in the literature of the period under consideration. This does not

mean that this field has been neglected, merely that it is treated as an integral part of the high school as a whole. Bunker's revision of an earlier study (67), reported in the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH of October 1936, covered a wide area of research in the junior high-school field. From historical background, to major influences, to efforts toward a functional organization, he carried the narrative of junior high-school development up to the materialization of the 6-3-3 plan. In his recent text on secondary education, Douglass (46) gave considerable attention to the origin, organization, and purposes of the junior high school. He noted the movement from the 8-4 plan of grade organization to 6-3-3, 6-2-4, and 6-4-4 and offered the opinion that this reorganization is still to go on apace before a functional unit is achieved.

That the junior high school did not meet early expectation was voiced by Featherstone (68), although he indicated that over a period of years many examples of well-conceived intermediate schools had developed, tending toward better programs in vocational education, pupil guidance, and articulation with other elements of the instructional program. Kandel (69) traced the movement for reorganization of the 8-4-4 system through its successive stages, beginning particularly with the address of Charles W. Eliot in 1888 criticizing the length of time required to prepare for the professions.

### The Junior College

*Definition, origin, and development*—Three writers, Davis (70), Douglass (46), and Greenleaf (73), gave attention to the definition of the junior college, from which it may be deduced that the junior college may be one institution in one section of the country and quite another in a different section.

The junior college is yet young enough to warrant some study of its heredity. Eells (72) narrated the first suggestions and the attempts to eliminate the freshman and the sophomore work in American universities, the University of Georgia having the distinction of being the first to adopt such a plan. The rise of the junior college was treated by Douglass (46). An article in *School Review* (76) presented evidence that the germ of the junior college was first fertilized by the prediction of Superintendent Maxwell of New York City in 1902 that the high schools of that city would soon be doing the work of the freshman and sophomore years of the universities, and by the suggestion of Superintendent Seaver of Boston that the high schools undertake the work of the first two years of college. In a unique approach, Jacobsen (75) analyzed the ancestry of the junior college as stemming from the college on the one hand and the secondary school on the other, the latter parent being the stronger of the two. The new institution was christened "junior" from its collegiate parent. Of such consequences are the variations in structure and function produced by

crossing two ancestral lines, that he predicted an important species of educational institution as the outcome. Hill (74) traced the development of the junior college in California and Zuerner (77) described a five-year experiment in Pennsylvania.

*Growth and trends*—By far the most prolific writer on the growth of the junior college is Eells (71) who annually for the past few years has recorded and presented statistical data bearing upon trends in enrolment; number of junior colleges, both publicly and privately controlled; number of instructors; types according to administrative organization and changes therein; and accreditation. The most comprehensive and informative treatment of data relating to junior colleges is that of Greenleaf (73), who prefaced his statistical data with historical material. This type of study should be undertaken at intervals of a few years to bring valuable information up to date.

### Summary

The history of secondary education is in the making; significant changes are taking place. In spite of this there is a dearth of literature embracing a comprehensive treatment of historical data. Nearness to the scene of action may be the cause. As events mature we should expect several good historical researches on secondary education in the near future. Of commendable significance is the effort to piece together a philosophy of secondary education upon which to erect a satisfactory program for current needs, which will be flexible enough to meet changing needs.

## CHAPTER IV

### Higher Education<sup>1</sup>

H. G. GOOD

THE HISTORIOGRAPHY of American higher education includes histories of separate colleges, universities, and professional and technical schools, published documents and studies based upon them, and something more, namely, the history of the social and intellectual conditions in Europe and America which have affected and have been affected by higher education. The present section has two aims: to survey recent publications and to show something of the variety of types of historical studies in this field. In the issue of this REVIEW for October 1936, about fifty histories of colleges and universities were listed; and an equal number of state histories of education, many of which deal wholly or in part with higher education. Except in a few cases those titles are not repeated here and the reader should refer to the issue cited.

#### Guides and Bibliographies

There is no authoritative list of higher educational institutions; we have no official definition of higher education; and there is no general bibliography of its history. The *Educational Directory* (131), issued annually by the United States Office of Education, provided in 1938 an inclusive list of 1686 institutions ranging from junior colleges and normal schools to universities and graduate professional and research institutions. An authoritative handbook, edited by MacCracken (110), gave a selected list of higher grade institutions with detailed information upon each together with some definitions and a historical-descriptive introduction.

The *Writings on American History* (95), since its beginning in 1903, has provided an annual bibliography of all books and articles in its field. It has a section on educational history but some of the relevant titles are classified under other headings. The latest volume to come from the press is that for 1934. A general index to all volumes down to and including 1930 is in preparation. Tewksbury (129) furnished a bibliography of 319 college histories but his bibliographical data are incomplete. He also gave four further lists of biographies and histories dealing with higher education, including a list of thirty-three state histories of education. Partial bibliographies are to be found in special works. Thus, E. C. Elliott and Chambers (90) prepared a bibliography of 111 titles dealing with court decisions and legislation. Eells (87), Easterby (86), and Garber (94) may also be mentioned as examples of good bibliographies in volumes dealing with special topics. Most but not all of the works which are named below contain competent bibliographies.

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 415.



### General Histories of Higher Education

There is no satisfactory history of higher education in the United States. Thwing (130) and Wills (134) are still the best introductions but the former is mainly a history of the founding of certain institutions. This phase of Thwing's work was well supplemented by Tewksbury (129). Wills gave a useful introduction rather than a history. A general history of higher education, broad in conception and scholarly in execution, is greatly needed; but it would be difficult to write such a work in the present state of our knowledge. One may hazard the opinion that it will be attained only as the cumulative result of a succession of efforts.

### Biography of Educational Leaders

The *Dictionary of American Biography* (103), completed in 1937, is a great achievement of American historical scholarship. It contains documented accounts of the lives of 13,627 distinguished Americans, about 10 percent of whom occupied positions in higher education as administrators, professors, and investigators. The accounts of their work are a significant contribution to knowledge, and the attached bibliographies together with the index volume are important tools for further research. Important works of the same class dealing with graduates of particular universities are by Sibley (126) and by Dexter (83, 84).

Recent biographies which contribute to our understanding of historical development are by Severance (125) and by Wilkerson (132). The former wrote the life of a president, R. H. Jesse, of the University of Missouri; the latter, that of T. D. Boyd, president of the Louisiana State University during the period when the late Senator Long was most active. Unfortunately Wilkerson did not deal with the politics of his period and his work is too laudatory to pass for impartial biography. Also, although it is extensively documented, it relies too much upon personal opinion and reminiscences. The work and influence of T. G. Clemson in founding the agricultural college which bears his name was recorded by Holmes and Sherill (101). Larsen (109) gave an intimate but socially documented account of the founding of a small college in Minnesota and of the formative years in the Scandinavian settlements of the upper Mississippi Valley. Several autobiographies of great importance have been published recently. Hanus (96) presented the story of the factors which impelled and those which impeded the development of the department, later the graduate school, for the study of education at Harvard. Russell and Elliott (121) made available a classified anthology of selections from the annual reports of Presidents Barnard and Butler of Columbia University, materials which contribute to the understanding of many of the problems which that university has had to meet in the last half-century. Burgess (80) dealt with the transition of the same institution from a small college to a great modern university. An exhaustive account of the first president of Columbia and of

his connection with the founding of King's College was prepared by Schneider and Schneider (123).

### Histories of Colleges and Universities

The separate college history is the typical work in the history of higher education; and the present decade has been a boom period for such works because we are passing the centennials of a great many colleges, most of them called into being by the westward expansion of the last century. College histories, whether or not written to commemorate centennials, would be more useful if they were more objective, more critical, more fully documented, and smaller. They have not always been well written, for obvious reasons, but as a class they seem to be improving. We name some of the better, recent college histories. Cady (82) wrote a compact history of Franklin College, Indiana. It is both realistic and restrained and is based upon original sources almost exclusively. Easterby (86) wrote the history of our oldest municipal college, the College of Charleston, and presented many of the most important documents.

A distinguished historian, Walter L. Fleming (92), prepared a history of the Louisiana State University down to 1896. Starting with the beginning of education in the state, he traced the organization of the early state seminary, the transition to the state university, the incorporation with it of the agricultural and mechanical college and the influence of reconstruction upon the institution. Financial difficulties, legislation, and internal development are fully treated, but there are no detailed references and the chapter bibliographies are too summary to be readily usable. The only available continuation of the history beyond 1896 is in Wilkerson's life of President Boyd who served from 1896 to 1932. This work has been noticed above. Sweet's history (128) of De Pauw University is fully documented and well proportioned but some of its judgments are too lenient and it has a superabundance of names, dates, and useless facts. The historian of the College of Wooster, Notestein (115), dealt very fully and instructively with the difficulties and the errors of the founders. A more general treatment of the mistakes and vain hopes of college promoters in the last century is found in Schwalm's comparative study (124) of fifteen colleges in the old Northwest. The history of a leading women's college, Goucher College, was very competently written by Knipp and Thomas (105). O. L. Elliott (91) prepared a full account of the founding and early administration of Stanford. Fifty pages are devoted to that academic *cause célèbre*, the dismissal of Professor E. A. Ross, and an equal number to the financial difficulties which ensued from the depression of 1893 and the following years. The paternalism of the founders and the president is shown in the fact that the trustees were not allowed "to take the helm" until eighteen years after the founding. This is a candid, well-informed, and well-proportioned but only slightly documented history although the

evidence shows that the original sources were used. Bullock (79) gave special attention to administration in tracing the history of the manual labor school which has become Emory University.

*Histories of Harvard University*—The history of Harvard has been written many times, and the publication of Morison's works (111, 112, 113, 114) is a proper occasion for the special mention of a few of those older histories also. The earliest one that requires notice for its scholarly character was prepared by Peirce (116) and closed its account with the year 1769. The second important history of Harvard was by Quincy (119) and has been the inspiration and often the source of later historians. The histories by Peirce and Quincy both gave attention to finances, new professorships, buildings, and other evidences of growth and expansion, to presidential administrations and to the faculty, but neglected the students, the curriculum, and the educational work for which a college is established. Other works, which are not independent of Quincy's history, however, were by Eliot (88), G. B. Hill (99), and Bush (81).

The volumes by Morison belong to the highest class of educational historiography. In *The Founding of Harvard College* he showed the influence of mediæval and early modern universities upon the new college, described its establishment, and traced its history to 1650 in a volume of 472 pages. The government and internal history of the college, the wise guidance of President Dunster, and all the religious and economic conditions which had a bearing upon the new institution are adequately developed. *Harvard College in the Seventeenth Century* contains the most detailed and instructive curriculum history of any American college and without neglecting other elements necessary to a balanced treatment. This work was issued in two volumes and these should have been numbered two and three to follow *The Founding of Harvard College* in a regular series. The plans, maps, and illustrations together with a large selection of documents greatly add to the value and authority of the work. Further volumes are promised on the eighteenth century and the nineteenth to 1869 when President Eliot took office. When completed to this point the work will stand with Rashdall and D'Irsay or above them among the greatest examples of educational history. Yet this will not make a complete treatment for *The Development of Harvard University* (111) is a symposium and not a history. *Three Centuries of Harvard* (114) is a compact treatment of the whole theme.

### Recent Studies of Special Topics

In order to indicate something of the variety of topics which are studied historically it is necessary to give only the briefest account of each. Ross (120) treated the manual labor educational movement in the land-grant colleges in a fully documented study. Johnson (104) in a work which perhaps claims too much for the South has traced the scientific activity of

that section before the Civil War. Gambrell (93) in another sectional study developed the early history of the education of ministers in New England. Stauffer (127) and Koch (106) have shown the effects of deism and the Illuminati agitation upon the education and thought of the same section. Isbell (102) studied the influences of Locke and Jefferson upon Judge Woodward's plan for his *Catholepistemiad*. Dunbar (85) emphasized the antagonism between denominational and public higher education and as in the preceding study underlined Jefferson's influence in Michigan and also in Indiana. The history of higher education in the Old South, including the University of Virginia and the influence of Jefferson's ideas, is a subject that should be more thoroughly studied.

Legal and financial studies form important classes of the practical historical researches named above. In two independent volumes, E. C. Elliott and Chambers (89, 90) provided documents for the study of the legal status and administration of selected institutions and presented an analysis of important judicial decisions and a study of their bearing upon university problems. D. S. Hill (98) studied the control of public higher education in the United States. Beu (78) studied the legal basis of public normal schools and teachers colleges in the north central states. Among the older financial studies of a historical type are those by Price (117, 118) and by Schwalm (124). The latter is noted in another connection above. He traced the historical development of a group of older Northwest Territory colleges and made a major contribution to their financial history. A comparative study of unemployment in the learned professions that has important practical significance was made by Kotschnig (107); and Willey (133), with the aid of a committee, prepared an elaborate study of a cognate problem, the effects of the depression upon higher education.

Other important monographs are by Hollis (100) on the educational foundations, Eells (87) and Heston (97) on college surveys, and Kuder (108) on vocational trends in eleven New England liberal arts colleges. The last named is, of course, related to the several older curriculum studies, some of which are listed in the issue for October 1936 of this *REVIEW*. An article in the same field is by Schmidt (122) but curriculum history has not been much developed in recent years; nor has the earlier work by E. E. Brown and others on the origins and history of state universities and public higher education been followed up. The history of higher education is a field which will invite cultivation by capable historians for many decades.

## CHAPTER V

### Adult Education<sup>1</sup>

HERMAN G. RICHEY

**E**FFORTS HAVE BEEN MADE to provide some type of education for adults in all periods of our history but until recently these efforts were not related to each other nor did they comprise an integrated attack upon the problems of adult education. The literature of the early history of the adult education movement, and most of the later history as well, deals therefore with the origin and development of those organizations, institutions, and activities that are now considered as having been incorporated in the movement.

The lack of an adequate treatment of the recent trend toward a more planned and integrated program makes necessary the consideration of surveys, reports, descriptive accounts, and other materials because, when all historical treatments are taken into account, there remain large gaps that can be filled only by reference to such materials as the *Journal of Adult Education* (155), the summaries in *Adult Education in Action* (147), the *Handbook of Adult Education* (172), the *Annual Reports of the Director of the American Association for Adult Education* (137), and several volumes of the series, *Studies in Adult Education* (138, 148, 150, 167, 169, 170).

#### General References

As early as 1901, Adams (135) traced the origin and development of the lyceum, chautauqua, university extension, and summer schools, and indicated the place of these institutions, along with music, travel, newspapers, and other agencies and activities, in the extension of education. A few years later, Dexter (145) devoted the third and final part of his work on the history of education in America to educational extension and included chapters on libraries, newspapers and periodicals, summer schools, evening and correspondence schools, learned societies, lyceums, popular lectures, and museums. Monroe's *Cyclopedia of Education* (165), published during 1911-13, devoted only a few lines to the topic "adult education (in America)" but under that heading referred to other topics such as lyceums, chautauquas, university extension, mechanics' institutes, Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A. schools, evening schools, continuation schools, summer schools, and lecture systems. The accounts by Adams, Dexter, and the contributors to Monroe's encyclopedia have been brought down to date by later writers, but no historian has found a unifying

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 417.



theme for the disconnected histories of the many agencies and activities which are now considered to be aspects of adult education.

The best general accounts available for the more recent period are by Cubberley (144) and, for the very recent period, by Cartwright (143). The latter's work included a brief account of adult education movements since their inception but stresses the ten-year period beginning 1924. Alderman and Lombard's study (136) is also useful, particularly for the period 1920-30.

All historical treatments must be supplemented by incidental historical accounts found in studies such as those by Pepper (170), Hall-Quest (150), Judd (156), and in the *Handbook of Adult Education* (172), which listed, described, and in some instances briefly traced the origin and development of thirty-seven aspects of adult education, including the newer agencies and activities such as alumni education, the American Association for Adult Education, the Federal Emergency Adult Education Program, public forums, radio in adult education, regional theaters, vocational rehabilitation, and vocational guidance. One of the publications of the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York (171) traced the historical development of several agencies of adult education. Although specifically concerned only with New York, this volume supplemented all available general historical accounts.

### The Roots of the Adult Education Movement

Although the term "adult education" became current in America only within recent decades, the beginnings of the movement may be traced far back into our history. Cartwright (143), perhaps overzealous to give the movement a long and honorable past, viewed the New England town meeting as the initial adult education venture in America and as the "logical next step to the formation of the first lyceum."

*The lyceum*—From 1826 to the period of the Civil War the lyceum rendered important service and enjoyed a large measure of public favor. Hayes' excellent history (151) of the American lyceum indicated the contributions of this organization to education. His work should be supplemented by Noffsinger (167) for information concerning the commercialized lyceum; by the briefer accounts found in recent studies of adult education; and also by accounts in Cubberley's manual (144) and other standard texts.

*The chautauqua*—Adams (135) and Cartwright (143) have regarded the chautauqua as the successor of the lyceum. Their brief accounts should be supplemented by Noffsinger's volume (167), Vincent's study (178), Willoughby's extensive article (179), and Hurlbut's *The Story of the Chautauqua* (153) or the article in the *Encyclopedia Britannica* (168).

*Adult classes in school*—One line of descent of the adult education movement may be traced through the schools, different types of which have characterized the various periods of our educational development.

The private evening schools of Colonial America should be considered one of the earliest agencies to provide education for adults. Seybolt's neglected but significant study (173) indicated that numerous cultural and vocational courses were offered to "adults of both sexes," "young persons in business," and to those "employed during the day" in the evening schools of the last half of the Colonial period. The development of adult education in its relation to the public schools was presented by Cubberley (144) and others. Cubberley's treatment of adult classes in connection with public schools and his history of the legal provisions for such classes are, although brief, the best available. Adult education, through rural public schools and particularly through Smith-Hughes classes for adults, was treated by Landis and Willard (158). Jones' work (154) on the continuation school is old but still useful.

*University extension*—The university extension movement, as now conceived, originated during the last quarter of the nineteenth century. Cartwright (143), Cubberley (144), and others presented brief accounts of its origin and development. Hall-Quest's study (150), although not primarily history, supplemented the general works. Adams (135) provided an account nearly contemporaneous with much of the development that he described. The pioneer work of Harper at the University of Chicago was described by Bittner and Mallory (141). Recent developments and statistics are adequately presented in standard texts and in the publications of the Office of Education.

### **Adult Education since the World War**

Disclosures resulting from the nationwide mobilization of adult males during the World War gave new impetus to the movement that aimed at the elimination of illiteracy, the training of the functionally illiterate, and the "Americanization" of the foreign-speaking population. This is the movement to which most persons, before 1925, would have applied the term "adult education" had the term been in general use.

*Education of adult illiterates and non-English speaking persons*—The fight against illiteracy is reported in Cubberley's general treatise (144) and in other standard texts. Such treatments should be supplemented by accounts of moonlight schools (175), opportunity schools, and representative programs developed in various centers. They should also be supplemented by publications of the National Advisory Committee on Illiteracy.

The development of programs to provide instruction in English and citizenship to non-English speaking persons is traced in Mahoney's study (164) on Americanization in the United States. This work should be supplemented by Lewis' article (160) in the *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*. For a fuller understanding of the movement, the series *Americanization Studies*, prepared under the direction of Allen T. Burns, although not historical, is indispensable.

*The new concept of adult education*—Conditions arising from a changing economy have led since the World War to a redefinition of adult education in terms of adjustment, education, and re-education of the entire population (157). The realization that a program of adult education must provide for all, the educated and the uneducated, the learned and the ignorant, the illiterate and the literate, has led to the recognition of the educational significance of an increasing number of activities and agencies. Many of these are of too recent origin to have a written history. Others, although older, have been generally accepted as significant only recently. Others do not appear important either as to the number of persons served or as to the services rendered. Only the more important aspects of the movement can be mentioned.

The history of agricultural extension to adults is, to a certain extent, the history of the work of the extension service in agriculture and home economics operating out of various state colleges and supported under the Smith-Lever law. The history of this agency was traced briefly by Cubberley (144) and in more detail by Landis and Willard (158). For the period 1930-36 Brunner and Lorge's study (142) should also be consulted. Heenor's study (152) is excellent for adult education in agriculture through the evening school.

The impetus given to popular education through Carnegie's benefactions to public libraries is treated briefly in the general accounts. Learned (159) included an appreciative sketch of the developments in the library preceding 1924 and of the American Library Association in its promotion. He also reviewed the library activities of Andrew Carnegie and the Carnegie Corporation. The volume, *Libraries and Adult Education* (138), while not primarily a historical study, should be consulted.

✓Eggertsen (146) quoted from writers and speakers from 1826 to the present time on forums as agencies of adult education. Numerous accounts of particular forums are to be found in current articles. Lurie's history (161) of the Ford Hall Forum and similar works are enlightening. Studebaker's *The American Way* (176) contained the types of materials from which the history of the modern forum must be written.

Workers' education was discussed briefly in standard texts (144) and in the general treatments of adult education (143). Gleason (149) discussed the work of the National Women's Trade Union League, the International Ladies' Garment Workers Union, trade union colleges, United Labor Education Committee, Amherst classes for workers, workers' institutes, and other aspects and agencies of workers' education. Evans' book (148), although old, contained the best statement available on the education of young workers in day schools, cooperative schools, evening schools, and industry.

On the history of other aspects of adult education, Noffsinger (167) should be consulted on correspondence schools; Peffer (169) on corpora-

tion schools; Andrews (139) on private correspondence schools; Beal (140) and Shaw (174) on alumni and post-collegiate education; MacCormick (162) on the development of programs of education for adult prisoners; MacGowan (163) on the development of the community theater; Talbot and Rosenberry (177) on the adult education program of the American Association of University Women, and the yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (166) on parental education.

Other agencies and activities connected with the movement for which no histories have been written except the very brief statements found in Cartwright's volume (143), the *Handbook of Adult Education* (172), and similar works are those such as the recently organized Federal Emergency Adult Education Program; adult education in sanatoria; parent and family education; radio in education; and several others that are listed in the *Handbook*. Concerning these, there is little, if any, literature of a historical nature. The present indication is that the program of the American Association for Adult Education will provide some future historian with the materials for not only the history of these aspects of adult education but also for the history of the entire modern movement.

*The American Association for Adult Education*—The integration of the program, under expert direction and based upon research, has resulted from the leadership of the American Association for Adult Education. The history of this organization and the accounts of the work of Keppel and the Carnegie Corporation are presented by Cartwright (143) whose statement suffers only from its brevity. His treatment should be supplemented by the materials found in the official publications of the national organization.

A study of the growth and development of the adult education movement in its relation to institutionalized education and the various social scenes in which it has had its setting would be an original and significant contribution to the history of American education.

## CHAPTER VI

### Education and Social Trends<sup>1</sup>

MOWAT G. FRASER and MARY ELIZABETH SMITH

A FLOOD OF RECENT LITERATURE concerns the relationship between social trends and education. Very little of this literature, however, contains studies which are systematic. M. E. Smith (222), who classified according to scope and method all publications noting a relationship between social trends and education issued between June 1935 and January 1939, found that fewer than 10 percent of the references examined made any use of historical perspective in judging even the significance of trends and that almost three-fourths dealt in generalities, which not only lacked supporting data or philosophizing but also were too vague for ready application. Many references point out, for instance, that the increasing propaganda from dictatorships necessitates greater encouragement of beliefs in democracy; very few show what specific, verified kinds of propaganda necessitate various specific aims, subjectmatter, methods, or incentives at different levels of education.

In a field of such recognized importance there seems to be a clear need for more definite and more methodical studies. A few of these should be comprehensive; in order to understand the significance and the range of educational trends, Fraser (201) pointed out, one needs to study the ways in which various combinations of educational trends change with various social trends over long stretches of history. Accordingly, one needs in his research a combination of statistical, historical, and philosophical methods. Other studies should be narrower, trying to relate definite data concerning one or more social trends to one or more definite areas of education. Sears (221), for example, has outlined procedures for studying the influence of the depression on eight different aspects of education: historical and comparative, theoretical and philosophical, school population, curriculum, staff personnel, school organization and administration, financial and business, and scientific and professional developments.

Recent published studies together concern most major areas of education. They include a few systematic studies which attempt to give broad perspective, as well as others which are valuable because of the method of study they suggest. The following summary presents perhaps the most methodical or suggestive studies, as well as the most prominent emphases. Since studies in this field have not been summarized previously as such, some of the references antedate 1936.

#### Comprehensive Studies of Social Change

Following Monroe's and Cubberley's precedent, several recent writings on the history of education have devoted considerable attention to the

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 419.



social conditions accompanying educational conditions in various historical periods. Reisner (218) specified desirable methods for noting and describing such historical relationships. Fraser (200) attempted to show the ways in which social and higher educational trends have changed with the major rises and declines in western civilizations. More such studies at every level of education, tested at a great many points by narrower investigations, are apparently needed before an adequate history of education can be written, that is, one which shows the part played by education, among other social conditions, either in past history or today.

### Changing Curriculum Emphases

Beard (182), Counts and others (194), and other members of the American Historical Association Commission on the Social Studies (180), most notably, have emphasized ways in which the social studies need to be used to help educate for our current, changing conditions. Curti (195) has done the same through analyzing the social ideas of the leading educators in American history. A concise account of the economic hazards affecting the wage-earners today, with their implications for the social studies, is given by Kinney (211).

Emphasis on vocational subjects, it has often been pointed out, has resulted primarily from the increasing need for specialization in a machine age. McRae (213) proposed a course of study in the industrial arts program directly intended to develop certain interests, habits, knowledge, and skills which are necessitated by shifts in political philosophies and by commercial innovations. Many writers have criticized as out of date the tendency of letting secondary schools be dominated by college entrance requirements rather than by the trade, manual-vocational motive.

Health and recreational opportunities formerly offered naturally in agrarian life must now be supplied in the school. This has been emphasized by Douglass (197), Bruce (187), and many others. The need for music and art in our increasing leisure has been often stressed. Through predictions of future living conditions based on the National Resources Committee Report on Technological Trends and National Policy, Pelton (216) foresaw increased attention to the arts as a way also of taking care of excessive emotional energy. Pelton, like Leibson (212), has joined the numerous advocates of scientific method who emphasize the value of the methods developed in biology and other sciences for the student of social problems.

Studies advocating no encouragement of particular ideals or conclusions are almost too numerous to mention (184, 186, 188, 196, 206, 220, 224). Others which stress the possibility of the school leading the way somewhat more definitely but without indoctrination in the narrower sense are those by Kefauver (207) and Kilpatrick (209, 210). Kilpatrick (210) concluded that social trends are causing "tested thought" to be applied to the affairs of men and that education should consequently stress critical minded-



ness and breadth of vision, as well as living and cooperation. Somewhat similarly, by an analysis of the possibilities of social planning through education, Brown (185) concluded that the school could function as an agency of the state, indoctrinating a philosophy of common good. Counts (191, 193) has been outstanding in contending that social trends require encouraging the democratic ideal, as well as certain economic implications which could be agreed upon by a united profession.

### **Population Changes and Enrolments**

Numerous studies have been made relating such factors in the social scene as the declining birth-rate, the changing status of the home, and the depression to enrolments at the various school levels. A recent bulletin of the National Education Association Research Division (215) systematically treated the implications of population trends, noting the fact that increases and decreases in the birth-rate and mobility of population directly affect admissions to schools. The continued employment of mothers in various occupations has encouraged the development of public and privately organized kindergartens and nursery schools for young children (217). At the secondary level the growth in enrolments has been studied by Chambers (189) with particular reference to legal interpretations, as well as by Edwards (198), R. D. Smith (223), and by Hinrichs (203). These increases have been largely due to the demand for specialization in an industrial age and to the exclusion of pupils of high-school age from gainful employment. These same factors, according to Kersey (208), Fraser (200), and others, have caused increases at the college level. At the adult level, the need for retraining, the increase in scientific knowledge, and the inability of adults to obtain employment have caused widespread interest in night schools, extension courses, and public forums, as has been shown by Gow (202), Cole (190), and others.

### **Social Implications for Administration**

The growth of cities, rural resettlement projects, movement of urban residences to outlying sections, the development of road systems facilitating transportation of rural pupils, and trends in school population have been recognized in a National Education Association *Research Bulletin* (214) as factors to be considered in the location, design, and organization of the school plant. Reisner (219) used a historical approach in order to show the effect on school organization of the increasing heterogeneity of the school population, tracing the progress in the better classification of pupils from the Colonial period to the present. In the area of teacher training the analysis of Rainey (217) of the guidance role of the classroom teacher is typical. Counts (192), Averill (181), Judd (205), and Bigelow (183) found in the transitional nature of present American society a demand for more highly qualified teachers.

### **Adaptations in Methods of Teaching**

Studies of the relationship of social trends to instructional methods have laid emphasis on the need of recognizing individual differences because of the greater heterogeneity of the school population or the greater variety in curriculum offerings and the increasing use of new devices and materials made possible by the development of science. The first point has been set forth by Hunt (204) and others; the second by a National Education Association *Research Bulletin* (214); and Everett (199), who, by comparing the methods used by old and modern schools respectively in their relations to the society served by each, has suggested fundamental relationships between social changes and school methods.

### **Dealing with Contemporary Problems**

A great many studies have been made of the role of the school amid current social trends. Some stressed the idea that the school must make up for the evils and losses of society mainly through the development of a balanced personality. Most concerned themselves with the school's part in social reform and the discussion was often obscured by vague phrases, such as "a new social order," "the status quo," and "problem solving." When attention centered upon meeting actual needs, the following questions became prominent: In the discussion of controversial issues should the school do whatever local public opinion seems to prefer? Should it confine itself to facts and theories at most, without encouraging evaluations? Should it encourage general ideals but no particular conclusions, or vice versa, and who should determine what ones, if any, they should be? The term "indoctrination," which is widely used in this connection, is unfortunately often used to refer to any of the policies referred to in this last question.

## CHAPTER VII

### History of Education in the British Commonwealth of Nations<sup>1</sup>

NICHOLAS HANS

#### General Historical Accounts

There are no historical works giving a comprehensive survey of education in the British Commonwealth. Considering the variety of countries and races and the mass of material such works are hardly to be expected. Hans (234) attempted to trace common traditions in all the English-speaking countries and has brought to light some new material on secular influences. His emphasis on the influence of Freemasonry is new and original but some critics consider it as exaggerated. Jones (236) covered all four nations of Great Britain but limited her survey to the eighteenth century. She showed in detail the influence of puritanism as a way of life on the charity school movement.

#### England

Mitchell (240) has published an excellent critical bibliography of recent works on English education. Part III of his contribution is devoted to history of education. In the following survey of England we include the works published since 1936 and a few books published earlier but not included in the October 1936 number of this REVIEW. No general history of English education has appeared during the last several years, but several works of merit dealt with particular aspects or separate periods. Infant education found its first historian in Raymont (241). Through the study of primary sources, supplemented by his personal knowledge of the Froebelian movement, he adequately filled the gap by his account. Nursery schools are likewise exhaustively described by Cusden (230) who took an active part in the movement. The growth of the elementary-school system in the twentieth century and the social changes introduced by the expansion of secondary schools are vividly described by Lowndes (238). The change from domestic squalor and child neglect in the slums of the nineteenth century to the well-established medical service and humane attitude toward children in the twentieth century is not generally realized because of its gradualness.

The independent public schools form the subject of Rodgers' book (243). If it is not an entirely original work, many details came to light for the first time. Kirke (237), as the Bishop of Oxford, selected a narrower field and outlined the history of Anglican schools connected with the Woodard Corporation. The outlook of the High Church party is

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 421.

clearly shown in the two separate halls built at Lancing College, one for the pupils of the upper class and a second for those of the middle class. The nonconformists are represented by three works. Griffiths (233) approached education from a new angle and proved the interdependence of theological speculations and school practice. The gradual change from rigid Calvinism to the enlightened tolerance of Unitarians is traced back to its causes, and the roles of Scotland and Holland are emphasized. Methodists supplied two books: in one, Body (228) gave an account of John Wesley and his Kingswood school; in another, Brash (229) described Methodist colleges and their growth.

Secularists are represented by one new book of Tiffen (245) and the older work of Maltby (239). Liverpool and Manchester were the centers of secular movement in the nineteenth century and Tiffen has now given an account of Liverpool's part, as the earlier work of Maltby had done for Manchester. Sadler (244) added a new publication to his long list by tracing back the English tradition of scholarships to the prereformation period. History of universities was enriched by two earlier works of Hearnshaw (235) and Whiting (246) in their centenary publications on King's College, London, and Durham and by a recent book of Fiddes (232). The difference in aims and organization between the two Anglican foundations and the northern universities of secular origin described by Fiddes is well marked. The contribution of Unitarians to higher education in England was the theme of Davis' work (231). Starting as ostracized heretics, the Unitarians ended by settling in Oxford side by side with the old Anglican colleges. The so-called Spens Report of the Board of Education (227) included valuable historical chapters by the secretary of the Consultative Committee, R. F. Young, which elucidated the development of curriculum in secondary schools of England. In his earlier work Young (249) supplied many new details about Comenius' relations with England.

In conclusion one must mention *The Year Book of Education* (248) which, besides detailed annual reviews, included separate contributions to history of education, for instance works by Hans and Mitchell, mentioned before. The 1939 volume included a new feature by giving four summaries of original historical research done at King's College, London, during the last years.

### Wales

Although Wales is often included in works on England, it is in fact a separate country with its own traditions and peculiar features. Jones (257) intended to write a comprehensive history of Welsh education, but up until now only Volume I has appeared. This dealt with the ancient Welsh civilization and early monastic schools of the independent British church. Davies and Jones (255), in their history of the University of Wales, devoted four chapters to general history of education before the university

was founded. Ellis (256) gave a detailed account of educational development in the last sixty years after the Education Act, 1870. Besides these three books a mass of material can be found in the board of education publications (250, 251, 252) and in the reports of two commissions on Wales (253, 254).

### Scotland

In comparison with England and Ireland, Scotland was fortunate in her educational history. In England the struggle between the church and dissenters, and in Ireland between the Catholics and Protestants, obstructed the establishment of national systems of education for centuries. In Scotland, in spite of many secessions from the Church of Scotland, all Presbyterian communities were of the same mind on educational questions and could follow the vision of John Knox without coupling education with dogmatic strife. On the other hand, the English social stratification had no parallel in Scotland, and the Scottish school system could be dealt with as the development of a single national organism. As a result, Scottish histories are less controversial and present a picture of uninterrupted growth.

Edgar's book (261) is until now accepted as the standard work on the earlier period. He embraced the growth of Scottish schools from the introduction of christianity to the close of the Reformation. It is based on primary sources and is well documented. Wright's work (303) is not as comprehensive but it supplied some additional details on parish schools. Good illustrations of parochial schools at the beginning of the nineteenth century can be found in the books of Pillans (284). A very good general history of education was published by T. P. Young (305) in French. The standard work on Burgh schools by J. Grant (264) is indispensable for every student of Scottish education, although the mass of detail makes reading difficult. In this respect Strong's book (300) is better arranged and more concise; it also included the latest period, up to 1908.

Separate histories of outstanding Scottish academies and schools were supplied by Harrison (268), Hutchison (270), M'Lean (277), Mackenzie (276), Ross (285), Smart (297), Steven (299), Tristram (301), and J. R. S. Young (304). They are all good monographs illustrating in each case the general Scottish tradition, with the exception of Mackenzie and Tristram who devoted their books to the Anglican foundation in Scotland. A regional illustration of Scottish history was given by Jessop (272), who selected Angus, and by the old work of Laurie (275), who described the schools of the Northeast in connection with the Dick bequest. A short but adequate history of teacher training was supplied by Rusk (286). The famous "Andersonian" Institution, which originated the movement of mechanics institutes throughout the English-speaking world, has only



one work devoted to it, by Sexton (296). It is rather a dry account, which did not exhaust the material. The secularist movement can be followed up in the writings of Combe, edited by Jolly (273), and reports of the Williams' School (295).

History of Scottish universities was dealt with by many authors. Morgan (280) gave a general survey of all four universities and of Scottish colleges on the continent which remained Catholic after the Reformation. The University of Edinburgh has its history expounded in the two fundamental volumes by A. Grant (263). As a completion of his work the book by Turner (302) described the period of the last fifty years. Original documents were collected in the volume of Morgan and Hannay (281). The University of Glasgow has two histories. Murray (282) dealt with the early period, and Coutts (260) covered adequately the destinies of the university from its foundation up to 1909. A short history of the two rival colleges of Aberdeen was published by Bulloch (258). St. Andrew has not yet found its historian, but abundant material can be found on all universities in the volumes of the Royal Commission on the universities of Scotland (265, 291). The Royal Commission and other commissions besides universities published reports on endowed schools (266) and the general state of education (267). As sources for the history of education in the nineteenth century the reports of the Scotch Board of Education (287), Education Commission (288, 289), and Scotch Education Department (292, 293) supplied excellent primary material.

### **Ireland**

The unhappy history of Ireland, full of mutual misconceptions, abuse of power, and partisan passions, was reflected in her educational development. It seems that the time has not yet come when an impartial and objective history of Irish education could be written. The qualifications necessary for such an attempt are difficult to combine. The future historian should be neither Irish, English, nor Scottish; he should be neither a Catholic nor a Protestant; and he should have at his command the knowledge of the Irish language and Irish conditions. Until such a miracle happens Irish education will be interpreted with a partisan bias. Even those few historians who sincerely tried to be impartial could not hide their sympathies and unwittingly selected material favorable to their party. Nevertheless there are many works written both by Catholics and Protestants which could be called scholarly and illuminating, provided that the views of both parties should be studied.

A comprehensive history of Irish education is therefore the work of the future. The short history by Auchmuty (306) is a good survey covering the whole field but is mainly based on secondary sources and has a Catholic bias. The early period of Irish monastic schools fortunately could be dealt with without bringing in the religious controversy. Two works were de-



voted to this period. Graham's study (314) is well documented and includes an exhaustive list of sources and a bibliography. The book of Hanson (318) described more the influence of the Irish schools on the continent than the origins of education in Ireland. The post-Reformation period was more exhaustively studied. Corcoran (309) collected sources from 1536 to 1816 impartially, but interpreted them from a Catholic point of view. His second book (310) was specially devoted to the persecuted Catholic teachers of the eighteenth century. Dowling (312) gave an excellent study of the Hedge schools with a probable exaggeration of their romantic character. O'Boyle (331) supplied the story of the Irish colleges on the continent based on primary Catholic sources. Ronan (332) selected Erasmus Smith Endowment as his theme and did not spare invectives, which are partially justified. A Christian Brother (313) devoted his work to the founder of his order, E. J. Rice, and his famous schools. He gave an inside view of the Catholic tradition at its best.

The Protestant historians quite naturally concentrated their efforts on Trinity College. This seat of learning was perhaps the only redeeming spot in the English proselytising policy in Ireland, and educated a long phalanx of famous Irishmen, including noted rebels and Irish patriots. Its exclusive Anglican character, however, was often attacked both by Catholics and Protestant dissenters. Stubbs (335) gave the first scholarly account abundantly documented by original sources. Urwick (336) has written his book from the dissenter's point of view, which complemented the Anglican exposition and is valuable for the commonwealth period. Dixon's contribution (311) to college histories is the most comprehensive, if not so scholarly as Stubbs (335) or Mahaffy's detailed story (329) of the early period. The last week gave a good description of general conditions of Ireland in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries (from the Anglican point of view).

Moore (330) described the attempt of undenominational instruction initiated by Kildare Place Society and its failure in the poisoned atmosphere of religious rivalry. His point of view is anti-Catholic. The struggle for a Catholic University is expounded by Walsh (337) and by the Society of Jesus (333). McCarthy's book (328), on the other hand, is a violent denunciation of Catholic hierarchy, written by a secularist Catholic. The official publications of select committees (315, 316) and many commissions (321-327) supplied a mass of material with evidence collected from all parties. The report of the Royal Commission of 1870 (327) included a very concise historical sketch of the national system in the nineteenth century.

### Canada

Since the October 1936 number of this REVIEW no new books on Canadian history have appeared. We supplement the list given in that number by works and sources not mentioned previously. Especially important

are Gosselin's book (345) for the French period and the collections of documents by Hodgins (346-349) for the British period.

### Australia

The history of Australian education is necessarily divided into six separate branches which can be combined in one book but cannot be dealt with as a single whole. Each of the six states has its own story of the struggle for the secularization of public schools and if many features are common to all it is more the result of similar origin and traditions than mutual influence.

New South Wales, as the oldest and most populated state, has as many works devoted to its history as the remaining five states combined. The first contemporary account was published by Burton (357) in 1840 and it has not lost its interest even now. Smith and Spaul (370) gave a comprehensive history covering the whole field. Mackenzie's book (363) gave a good short survey of historical development from a national point of view. Corrigan (360) described New South Wales education from a Catholic point of view. Although his interpretation of controversy is necessarily partisan it must be studied side by side with Smith and Spaul's book in order to appreciate the reasons of both parties. Johnstone (362) devoted his work to the Anglican foundation school molded on the lines of English public schools, and Barff (355) described the development of the University of Sydney.

Victoria has only one book on its history of education, by Sweetman, Long, and Smith (371). It is a dry official account limited to state schools only. Queensland and South Australia have not yet published histories of their schools. The short account of the University of Queensland (366) and the booklet by Meleng (364) are the only publications devoted to these states. The chapters in Browne's book (356) are concise but inadequate as state histories. Western Australia was dealt with by Rankin (367) and Tasmania by Reeves (368). The present conditions can be studied in the many issues of the Educational Research Series edited by Cole (358, 359).

### New Zealand

The main feature of New Zealand educational history is the struggle between the provinces and the Central Department over the control of education. The different provincial systems, closely connected with traditions inherited from England and Scotland, were well described by Butchers (378, 379) in his two volumes. It is a comprehensive history based on primary sources, which for a long time will remain the standard work on New Zealand education. Its only defect is a certain lack of synthesis. In this respect the book of Webb (385), although partially based on Butchers and devoted to one aspect only, is more concise and better arranged. Beaglehole (376) gave an adequate history of the University of

New Zealand and its colleges, which can serve as an illustration of provincial rivalries. Jackson's book (380) is an interesting study of Maori education, important for all dealing with non-European population. Mules and Butchers (382) published an exhaustive bibliography including articles and parts of general works. The New Zealand Council for Educational Research published many volumes on present conditions (377).

### South Africa

The problems of South African education are more complicated than those of any other member of the British Commonwealth. With Canada, South Africans share the problem of integrating two white races having different languages and traditions. With many Crown colonies they share the difficulties of assimilating a large heterogeneous native population. In addition they have their own problems of colored and Indian communities. Each problem is distinct from the other and has its own separate history. Malherbe (392) has done pioneer work on European education. With his unrivalled knowledge of local conditions he gave a detailed history of education from the start made by the Dutch up to the national system of the Union. In his second work Malherbe (391) described the defects of European system with the resulting poor white problem. McKerron's book (390) is based on Malherbe, but is a good short account. The two German dissertations by Emmert (387) and Liebenberg (388) gave some additional information on missionary work and technical education. Loram's book (389) is an expert statement of the problems of native education. The development of university education was given by Ritchie (393) in two volumes and by Walker (396) in a shorter account. A detailed bibliography, including the Dutch and Afrikaans sources, was supplied by Malherbe (392).

## CHAPTER VIII

### Educational Research in Latin America<sup>1</sup>

ERNESTO GALARZA

#### Status of Research

**E**ducational research reflects the persistence of old, unsolved problems on the one hand and the rapid infiltration of new ideas on the other. The peculiar interest and specialized skill of Latin American scholars in historical writing have been turned to good account in education, being demonstrated in a number of substantial investigations of the evolution of elementary, secondary, and higher education. Modern technics of research are being applied increasingly to the problems of administration, the measurement of intelligence and achievement, behavior maladjustments, and curriculum construction. Laboratories for studies along these lines exist in a number of countries, among them Brazil, Cuba, Argentina, Mexico, and Uruguay. Although the sum total of their production is not voluminous, these laboratories give promise of a thoroughly scientific influence on educational policy.

Broadly speaking, educational research in these areas suffers from a number of defects, some of them deriving from the social environment in which it is carried out. There is a noticeable padding of studies with data related to the subject at hand but taken from the experience of countries other than the one with which the particular investigation is concerned. There is also a tendency for otherwise valuable contributions to slip out of focus, due primarily to a sense of urgency to deal with all educational problems at once. Specific monograph material is not therefore produced with the regularity or in the quantity which is desirable. Common to many works is the general lack of reliable, cumulative statistical data and a lack of sharpness in defining the problems to be attacked.

There is also no question that the results of educational research are not made known widely and quickly enough at the present time. The loss in this respect has a triple significance: it deprives devoted and able scholars of the recognition which they properly deserve; it narrows greatly the area over which they can exercise a stimulating influence; and it reduces their acquaintance with previously completed research. Better coordination and more efficient interchange of knowledge would prevent wasteful overemphasis on limited areas which become fashionable from time to time. In the case of Latin America during the recent past, this comment applies particularly to educational tests and measurements.

Some of the energy spent might well be directed to a few important subjects on which there is a great need for scientific literature. Among these may be included descriptions of various methods applied to the

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 427.

elimination of illiteracy and the results obtained, the purchase and distribution of school supplies and equipment, the problems and methods of educational statistics, teachers' salaries and tenure, teacher-training institutions and the capacity of school systems to absorb their graduates, the provision of textbooks for the elementary schools, school housing, rural school problems, and systems for taxation in relation to school finance.

Attention may be called to the fact that many of these problems could best be studied through international cooperation. The schools of western Bolivia and southeastern Peru, or those of western Uruguay and east-central Argentina, those of the extreme north of Mexico and the border states of the United States, and the border schools of Haiti and Santo Domingo have many characteristics in common, lying as they do in overlapping cultural areas little affected by political boundaries. Interesting possibilities for cooperative, international research lie in this direction.

### History of Education

Among recent investigations on the history of education, there is the important work of Moacyr (419), based on carefully sifted documents which are quoted at length. The development of important educational institutions is described at some length, as for example that of the famous *Collegio Pedro II*. The experience of Argentina under the organic law on education of 1884 is dealt with by Riviere (421) who paid special attention to the operation of the National Council on Education and to the social forces in Argentine history which have molded school developments. Riviere's conclusions show a sound acquaintance with the possibilities for educational progress in his country. Of a different order are the studies of Romero Flores (423) and Hernández de Alba (414) dealing respectively with medical education in Mexico during the nineteenth century and with the history of the *Colegio de Nuestra Señora del Rosario* of Bogotá. Hernández de Alba disinterred many old documents to reconstruct the story of one of Colombia's venerable educational institutions, which he tells with rich literary flavor.

### Rural and Indian Education

Two abiding problems of Latin American education—rural schools and the Indian—received noteworthy attention in a number of important studies of recent date. Abadie Soriano (397) achieved a broad and informative survey of rural education in Uruguay, collecting data which lay scattered in the reports of supervisors, which the author appraised in the light of his own experience. It is an example of rural sociology applied to education based on accurate reporting and a critical appraisal of the underlying forces. Somewhat in the same vein is Avellaneda's summary (401) of a tour of the northern provinces of Argentina which presents realistically the educational situation in that area. Castillero (403) wrote



a considerably wider though much more superficial survey of rural education in various Caribbean countries visited by the Panamanian Commission, of which he was a member.

Trained and sympathetic observers contributed studies on the Indian and the problem of his assimilation through the school. Saenz (424) described the experiment station located at Carapan, whose efforts to break down the cultural barriers behind which the Indian lives led Saenz to the thesis that some cultural adaptations must take place in the civilization of the white man if it is to merge significantly with that of the Indian. Donoso Torres (409) approached the same subject from the standpoint of the Bolivian Indian and his increasing capacity to understand complex national issues through adequate instruction. To the study of the attitudes and needs of this important sector of the Latin American population, the Department of Indian Affairs of Mexico applied a novel method, reported in the proceedings of the Third Regional Indigenous Congress (407). More than 800 villages sent delegates to the Congress to describe existing conditions and to present concrete proposals for the betterment of their communities. An important rule of the Congress was that only the Indian delegates were allowed to address the delegates.

### Measurement, Statistical, and Other Studies

The adaptation of modern measuring technics was reflected in the competent work of Lourenço Filho (418) who explored avenues for original research in psychological testing in Brazil. This is especially important for Brazilian educators who recognize the need for national standards against which to measure teaching effectiveness and student achievement. Chirinos and others (404) concluded sample studies in the schools of Lima, Peru, outlining the possibilities for certain types of testing heretofore not attempted in that country. In Mexico, López (417) by the application of improved testing technics, opened the way for the study of unsocial behavior in the light of environmental factors. Of particular value was the survey of the social background and the testing of a group of children living in one of Mexico City's poorest workers' neighborhoods (416). This survey was conducted by staff members of the Instituto Nacional de Pedagogía in undoubtedly the most carefully planned and executed study of the relation between adverse social conditions and the psycho-physical aptitudes of the child.

Skilful handling of statistical materials for the purpose of determining educational policies is shown in the study by Teixeira de Freitas (426) of a recent school census in Brazil. The author demonstrated how qualitative differences in administrative and instructional procedures can be accurately inferred by proper analysis, leading to corrections which he suggests. Another contribution in statistics is that of Almeida Junior (400) who edited one of the most complete numerical descriptions of a state educational system, that of São Paulo in Brazil. Acuña (398) worked out,



with inadequate statistical data, a cogent appraisal of Argentine educational policies especially with regard to the planning of rural schools and the most effective use of supervising personnel.

The scarcity of organized data on teacher's salaries in Latin America makes the publication of a pamphlet on this subject a fact worthy of mention. The Confederación de Maestros de Córdoba carried out a limited investigation (405) on the economic status of teachers which showed that low salaries and frequent delays in their payment constitute a serious threat to proper staffing of the schools.

A number of studies of varying importance are mentioned in closing because they are indicative of promising trends in research. Hauck (413) described the clinical treatment of delinquents in Chile using materials gathered by direct observation. Carvallo (402) presented to the first child welfare congress ever held in Venezuela a report of the work of the School Medical Service since 1929. In Cuba, Suárez (425) carried out an important experiment in the adaptation of the Dalton Plan, and in the same country progress was reported in educational methods for the rehabilitation of crippled workers (415). Rodrigues (422) brought together and published in one volume various studies on foreign penetration in southern Brazil through the schools. Special stress is laid on the role of the national government in curtailing the influence of foreign ideologies through the prohibition of schools controlled by non-national groups.

## CHAPTER IX

### Educational Changes in Germany, 1936-1939<sup>1</sup>

WALTER M. KOTSCHNIG

**A** FUNDAMENTAL DIFFERENCE exists between totalitarian regimes and political dictatorships. Dictators, generally speaking, are satisfied with manipulating the political destinies of their countries free from constitutional or other controls. Totalitarian regimes, as implied in the name, are more ambitious. They are out not only to control every manifestation of national life but also to change man himself. With almost religious fervor they proclaim new philosophies of life and expect all individuals under their control to live in accordance with the new gospels.

In all totalitarian countries education in the broadest sense of the word has become the chief tool for the accomplishment of these ends. In order to create the new type of man educational institutions have been transformed and new educational agencies have been created. New educational philosophies have come into existence, curriculums have been altered, and new methods adopted. Germany is no exception to the general rule. While slow in getting under way, reforms in the educational system during the last few years have almost completely transformed German education both in form and in content.

Periods of radical change are not conducive to meticulous research or to calm reflection. It is therefore not surprising that few books of high scholarly standing have been published in Germany in recent years. To quote only these publications in a review of educational research in Germany since 1936 would give an altogether erroneous picture of present-day educational endeavor. Much more representative are those publications which offer apodictical restatements of German educational philosophy or which describe new ventures in education initiated by the national-socialist regime. To these have to be added all the new textbooks and outlines for teachers covering every subject taught in school. Their number is legion. They cannot be altogether omitted from this survey, yet owing to limitations of space, it will only be possible to quote a few which may be taken as representative.

#### Historical Research, Individual Educators

In his review of educational research in Germany up to 1936, Hylla (461) was able to point out that "about four out of five educational books and articles deal with the history of education." In recent years historical research in education in the accepted sense of the word has come to a virtual standstill. Ulich's study (516) on education during the republican era was written in exile. P. Petersen's contribution (491) to educa-

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 428.

tional history from Aristotle to national socialism is largely based on second-hand sources and while attempting to bring educational thought into line with national-socialist philosophy was severely criticized in Germany as being written in the "old spirit." Thiele (515) offered a scholarly addition to the *Monumenta Germaniae Paedagogica* in his history of the Prussian teacher-training institutions. The new generation of educators is represented by Freudenthal (449) who attempted to interpret the history of elementary education in Germany to suit the political objectives of the new German school.

A few investigations have been devoted to outstanding educators of the past. Schönebaum (507) brought out a further volume of his great work on Pestalozzi, while Jacob (462) edited the second volume of Fichte's unpublished works, dealing primarily with his epistemology. Friedrich Paulsen's full autobiography was first published by Lorenz (480) in the United States.

### **The New Educational Philosophy; Educational Psychology**

From a philosophical point of view national socialism is a revolt against the rationalist humanism of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Böhm (438) turned against Descartes and his followers. In a programmatic article Wilhelm (525) criticized both Descartes and Herbart and reinterpreted Pestalozzi as a forerunner of the national-socialist approach to education. Erxleben (448) in a discussion of Dilthey emphasized the need of relating all knowledge to the "living order of the national community."

The most outstanding protagonist of national-socialist ideas in education is Krieck (470, 471, 472, 473, 477). His numerous works, brought out in many editions, deal with the new concepts of race and breeding, blood and soil, the new organic order of the people, the leadership principle, etc., and with their educational implications. To him knowledge without presuppositions does not exist. Learning becomes meaningful only where it grows out of racial consciousness and serves the interests of the national community and its political ends. Through breeding and discipline, the new type of man is to be created who will exist and find fulfilment only as part of the national community, submitting without reserve to the will of its leaders. Krieck's writing offers the best key to national-socialist mentality and education. Krieck also edits one of the more representative new educational periodicals (475) and a series of monographs (476) dealing with the implications of national-socialist thought for learning and education. In Hördt (460) he found his biographer and interpreter.

Next to Krieck, mention must be made of Baeumler (430), whose ideas are if anything even more orthodox from the Nazi point of view. He, too, is an editor of one of the new pedagogical periodicals (431). Other interpreters of the new gospel in education are Beck (434), Benze (436), Hiller (459), Lehmann (478), Schaller (502), and Wallowitz (519). Krieck and Rust (473) defined the new attitude to higher learning in their Heidel-

berg addresses, while Schürmann (508) published on the occasion of the bicentenary of the University of Göttingen a most instructive symposium on the new outlook in the various branches of higher learning. Pfahler (492) attacked the problem of heredity and education and was criticized for his conclusion that intellectual and spiritual characteristics were acquired through education. Schneider (506) attempted to redefine and to safeguard the Roman Catholic idea of education.

In spite of the indifferent if not hostile attitude of the regime to academic psychology, Müller-Freienfels (486) and Hansen (454) contributed two works on child psychology. Hansen's important book includes a very useful bibliography. Müller-Freienfels objected to education "*vom Kinde aus*." He saw the development of the child determined by biological and social facts.

The subject of selection and the use of tests and measurements were treated by Ruttman (499) who also contributed an outline on characterology (500). Nohl (488) also added to his other pedagogical and philosophical works a study in character which is of particular interest, as much of it is devoted to an analysis of the character of the child. From outside Germany came Schairer's article (501) on student selection. The literature on educational psychology was reviewed in *Die Erziehung* by Blättner (437) and Dorer (446).

### Textbooks and Outlines

The imposition and acceptance of the new educational concepts necessitated a complete reorientation on the part of the teachers on all educational levels and a reorganization of subjectmatter. Numerous outlines and tests were published to aid the teachers in this process and to make them aware of their new responsibilities. They need to be mentioned here not only because they constitute the bulk of educational literature in Germany today but also because most of these publications combine theoretical dissertations with practical advice. Many of them appeared as monographs in collections of outlines or texts edited by prominent Nazi educators. As it is impossible to quote these publications individually, the reader is referred to some of the more important collections (433, 458, 482, 487, 511).

While the new outlines cover practically every field, the available literature reveals a special interest in certain subjects such as history, race biology, and physics. The books by Jaster (463), Klagges (467), and Voigtländer (518) are representative of the new treatment of history. To Jaster, "our treatment of history . . . is either national socialist or useless." A symposium edited by Dobers and Higelke (445) outlined the need for and the best ways of teaching various subjects from the racial point of view. Another symposium edited by Günther (453) dealt with physics as a subject preeminently fitted to educate for preparedness. A review by Göttel (450) of similar books appeared in 1937. The whole problem of education for preparedness was discussed under various aspects, both

theoretical and practical, by Altrichter (428), Kotz (469), Picht (493), Schmidt (504), Sliska (509), von Wedel (520), and Weniger (521). By way of comparison Wichmann (523) produced a study of pre-military education in France, Italy, and the Soviet Union.

Not intended for use in the schools but for the training of the Hitler Youth was Brennecke's handbook (442) published in this country by Childs (441) as the *Nazi Primer*.

### **General Descriptive Material, Special Types of Schools and Agencies**

No comprehensive study has so far been made of the effects of the national-socialist revolution upon the German educational system as a whole. Wilhelm and Gräfe's pamphlet (524) produced for consumption abroad and a later article by Gräfe (451) may serve as useful introductions. Taylor (513) gave a well-documented review of the educational revolution up to 1936. Since most of the actual educational reforms have been made since 1936 it is obviously out of date. Another study by Taylor (514) dealt with the new educational agencies such as the work service and the Hitler Youth. A useful, matter-of-fact description of actual changes in the educational system and the study programs up to early 1938 was given by Lindegren (479) of the United States Office of Education. A large part of this publication, whose author refrains from any attempt at interpretation or evaluation, is devoted to the institutions of higher learning. Bason (432) investigated a limited field as indicated in the title of her study. The new emphasis on physical education and some of the agencies which serve the physical training of German youth were discussed in a publication of the English Board of Education (452) prepared by a delegation of British educators.

All these books were written in English, as were a series of other publications written from an anti-Nazi point of view. Some of them are definitely partisan in character and of little scholarly value. One of the best documented publications in this group was produced by two English investigators (447) who preferred to remain anonymous. Wunderlich (526) submitted a critical evaluation of Nazi education at a conference organized in 1937 by the Graduate Faculty of Political and Social Science of the New School of Social Research. Mann's publication (481) suffers from a strong propagandist note.

Of the various types of educational institutions, the vocational schools and the universities found special consideration. In the case of the vocational school, as shown by Südhof (512) and Bojunga (440), this can be explained by the special effort of the German government to encourage this type of school for occupational and economic reasons. The special attention paid to the universities is due to the fact that the reforms effected in the institutions of higher learning were more drastic and began earlier than the reform of other schools. The German publications already cited



(473, 477, 508) were mostly programmatic. The best description of the actual reforms up to 1938 is to be found in Hartshorne (455, 456). Kotschnig (468) dealt with the specific problem of the "numerus clausus."

The literature on the German Work Service as an educational agency is substantial (443, 444, 484, 485, 510). The most recent work which has come to our attention is by H. Petersen (490). The organization and the purposes of the "Land Year" were described by Schmidt-Bodenstedt (503), the educational tasks of the Hitler Youth by Schnabel (505).

Kade (464) and Palm (489) wrote about the education of women in the new state. A publication by the Zentralinstitut für Erziehung und Unterricht (527) discussed actual reforms in this field.

### Sources

An indispensable aid to research in German education is *Deutsche Wissenschaft, Erziehung und Volksbildung* (496), a fortnightly published since 1935 by the Ministry of Education. It not only contains all the laws and decrees affecting education but also offers in its unofficial section authentic commentaries on the laws and decrees and on specific educational problems in Germany. The Ministry of Education also published for the first time in 1937 a descriptive handbook of education (498). It was followed in 1938 by a description and a commentary on the reforms effected in the secondary schools (497). Boje (439) contributed an official guide through the German institutions of higher learning. Valuable source material is to be found in the *Deutsche Hochschulstatistik* (495), which not only offered statistical information not generally available in other countries on the institutions of higher learning but also in a textual section the results of genuine research in problems of higher education.

Of the unofficial commentators, Wenke (522) continued his analyses of educational developments in *Die Erziehung*. Special efforts were made in numerous articles in the *Internationale Zeitschrift für Erziehung* (429) to explain to the foreign reader the new ideas and changes in German education. Since 1938, *World Education* (483) has published condensed translations from a wide range of German educational magazines.

Other sources of information are the *English Yearbook of Education* (517), the *Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College* (466) which in 1936 carried a detailed account of the development of the German teacher's association, and the periodical publications of the International Bureau of Education quoted by Kandel (465) in the October 1936 issue of the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH. The best current bibliography is to be found in the *Literarische Zentralblatt* (494). The *Jahresberichte des Literarischen Zentralblattes* for 1937 contained an extensive bibliography both of books and articles on education for the years 1936 and 1937 by Herrle (457).



## CHAPTER X

### Concepts of Education in Czechoslovakia

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

THE MOST DEFINITE INFLUENCE permeating Czechoslovak education during its first two decades were the ideas of President Thomas Garigue Masaryk, who wrote no special studies in pedagogy but paid attention to it in his various writings as a former university professor and as a practical statesman (558). He considered pedagogy a practical science, having its theoretical foundation in psychology and especially in educational and abnormal psychology. He criticized the school for its excessive intellectualism and demanded the training of emotions and esthetic and moral education by work. He believed that religious education is not a subject for public schools and should be left to the family. He favored a free and democratic school for all, with individualized training but socializing aims. The teacher must be independent in his thinking and a real authority in his community. The nationalistic aspects of education must be integrated with humanitarian and democratic ideals. The teaching of economics and politics should be a regular part of school curriculums. But education ought not be left to the school alone, since pre-school and post-school education are quite indispensable in a democracy. Women ought to receive more education and training as future mothers and as the first educators of their children. Morality and ethical self-control are the ultimate goals of all educational endeavors (553).

The emphasis on moral training was propounded also by František Drtina, who founded, together with Kádner, the Comenius Pedagogical Institute for School Reforms in Prague in 1919. According to him, the aim of education is morality which leads to goodness; since the highest principle of goodness is God, morality is also a religious goal, and not vice versa (544). Attracted by the humanitarian ideals and Comenius' religious and moral philosophy, Drtina elaborated on Comenius' dictum that the school ought to be a workshop of humanity, free for all, with compulsory attendance, but without obligatory religious training. Drtina's ideas were, however, conditioned by the pre-war conditions in Bohemia and were overshadowed by Masaryk's influence on the educational reforms of the newly formed Czechoslovak state.

The first systematic study of psychology in its educational aspects in Czech is credited to František Krejčí (550), on whose positivism were based his pedagogical studies. The child cannot be taught morality; he can only be led to it. Moral education can be realized by proper habits and activities. In this respect Krejčí slighted the importance of socio-psychological elements in moral training. František Čáda (539), the

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 432.

founder of Czech genetic psychology, examined the child's psychic processes and their evolutionary stages. He founded the "Pedopsychologie" (a term comparable to the American "educational psychology") section of the *Pedagogické Rozhledy* (*Pedagogical Views*), a leading Czech educational periodical, and received considerable attention for his studies of children's drawings and pictures as the permanent records of the expressions of a certain stage of development of the human spirit.

The most prolific educational writer, who is considered the founder of Czech pedagogical science, was Otakar Kádner, editor of the *Pedagogické Rozhledy*, who participated in all important educational experiments of his country. His monumental history of pedagogy (548) has really no equal abroad, with its remarkable erudition and the extensive table of contents. Kádner knew about fifteen foreign languages, and was thus able to take his material from original foreign sources. Beginning with a survey of education of the Oriental nations and an analysis of Roman and Greek education, he described the Middle Ages, and climaxed his last volumes with studies of educational theorists of Austria, Germany, Switzerland, France, England, the United States, Italy, Spain, the Scandinavian countries, Russia, Poland, Yugoslavia, and Czechoslovakia. Equally remarkable is his large introductory work to general pedagogy (549). Placing pedagogy in the scale of spiritual sciences behind psychology and sociology, he divided it into theoretical or abstract pedagogy (general pedagogy and the philosophy of education), concrete pedagogy (the organization of the school system and home education), and practical pedagogy (didactics). The aim of education is in the harmonious cultivation of all spiritual and physical abilities of the man aiming for the upbuilding of character.

Josef Hendrich is interested in the relationship of pedagogy with philosophy and has accepted Gentile's fusion of education with philosophy and ethics. The determination of the educational goals is a philosophical problem, but the determination of the means of education is an empiric question (545, 546). Otakar Chlup made a reputation for himself with his synthetic studies of various fields of education (542), and can be considered a successor of Kádner's erudition. He has specialized in experimental education and the preschool education. His criticism of Thorndike's quantitative pedagogy, propounded in Czechoslovakia by V. Příhoda, indicated his objections to the excessive "Americanization" of Czechoslovak schools (541). His latest study (543) of the secondary school formulated the thesis that this institution must offer higher education in all fundamental knowledge by genetic steps and in the closest harmony with natural and social reality.

The influence of American ideas and practices has been reflected in the numerous and able works of Jan Uher and Václav Příhoda. Uher's acceptance of Masaryk's humanitarian, democratic ideals explains his readiness to believe more in Dewey than in Thorndike and Watson (560).

But he has shown his independence in original thinking, and criticized the positivistic foundation of pedagogy for its lack of program, as well as Příhoda's overemphasis on mechanistic and quantitative aspects of educational reforms by demanding a philosophical and particularly idealistic and Christian orientation of education (559). Příhoda, on the other hand, a proponent of economic determinism and of Thorndike's psychology, favored especially the use of tests, of the global method of Gestalt psychology, and of the formation of a unified school (555, 556). He proposed the creation of a foundation school of four years, to be followed by four years of the "Comenius," the latter to be divided into three branches—the gymnasium and the "real" and the junior branches—and four years of "Atheneum" (a higher secondary school). His ideas are now being tried in five experimental junior high schools.

Masaryk's democratic and humanitarian philosophy has been criticized severely lately for its ideological and international aspects as a result of the Munich dismemberment of Czechoslovakia in 1938. For that reason, the brothers Vojta and Eduard Beneš are now in disfavor as the proponents of Masaryk's philosophy. Vojta, as former inspector-general of the Czech schools, published several minor but influential studies which insisted on the reforms of the most democratic character (534, 535). Eduard Beneš, as one of the founders of Czechoslovakia, and later its foreign minister and president, was, after Masaryk, the most influential figure of his country, although his influence on education was more practical than theoretical. Beneš, like Masaryk, scattered his ideas on education in numerous works covering other subjects (528, 529, 531, 532, 539, 557). As a sociologist supporting the so-called "critical realism," he elaborated Masaryk's general ideas on education, cultivating the democratic bases of the educational system and the integration of enlightened nationalism with internationalism and humanitarianism. A foremost follower and academic proponent of Masaryk and Beneš has been Inocenc Arnošt Bláha, a sociologist, whose emphasis on the need of the sociological basis of education (536, 537, 538) has been widely discussed and read, although his proposals have not been incorporated in actual reforms. Bláha showed that the direct influence of the teacher is only one educational element which needs to be coordinated with the child's environment and the general social conditions. The philosophy of education ought to be based not only on philosophy and psychology but also on sociology.

The moral problems of education have interested another sociologist, Otakar Machotka, whose studies of the family as an educational institution (552) and of the influence of sociology on American education (551) represent his thesis that any practical application of scientific ideas to education must be preceded by extensive case studies carried on according to definite scientific research methods. His general thesis has another proponent in Zdeněk Ullrich, who insisted that the social realities must be studied in their component parts before any general type can be de-

scribed (561). His careful study of the graduates of the Czech secondary schools showed that the children of the "white collar" classes usually follow the occupations of their fathers, while the lower classes make all kinds of sacrifices to send their offspring to secondary schools in order to achieve such positions (562). Of interest also is Antonín Obrdlík's sociological study (554) of the occupational attitudes of various classes to other classes, and particularly to education. He found that nearly all occupations look up to the teacher and on education in general, but have a tendency to look down, in varying degrees, on the priest, lawyer, and the soldier, as social parasites. Čečetka's analysis of the relation of Adler's ideas to education showed that the notion of the inferiority complex is another form of the struggle against oppression in education and that, on the whole, education has gained nothing from Adler's school because he and his followers have not solved the relation of the individual to society.

Czechoslovakia has produced rich and abundant educational literature which measures up fully to the standards set by the scholarship of better known languages. While the leading works on education of Europe and America are well known to the Czechoslovak student, the Czechoslovak pedagogical scholarship needs yet to be introduced to the students of comparative education.

## CHAPTER XI

### History of Education in the Far East<sup>1</sup>

JAMES F. ABEL

#### A. India

**T**HE HISTORY OF EDUCATION in India should be a record of high value to educators, and statesmen also, for India has the second largest educational task in the world. It is a subcontinent almost as large as Europe, excluding Russia, and on it live over 350,000,000 people that speak 225 different languages and dialects, belong to the Hindu, Moslem, Buddhist, Christian, Sikh, Jain, Zoroastrian, and tribal religions, and have for many centuries lived and thought in Oriental ways. The country presents language, religious, administrative, and financial problems on a remarkably large scale. The country has been for some two centuries largely controlled by an Occidental people; it therefore offers opportunity to study the development of education when two different civilizations come in contact and often in conflict. In the realm of what may be termed colonial policies in education, the policies of the British government deserve the closest scrutiny from their inception until now. For the student of education through missionary effort, the history of Christian education in India is distinctly enlightening.

Human nature being what it is, an Occidental can think of the Orient only in Occidental terms and from an Occidental background. He cannot think in Oriental terms (background and experience) and is for that reason much limited in his ability to grasp the Oriental side of the history of Indian education. His stress is unavoidably laid on the progress of Occidental forms of education among these Oriental peoples. Of course, if he has learned one of the major Indian languages, he is exceptionally well equipped to grasp something of the significance of education in India during the centuries before Occidental forms were introduced. But probably more than 99 percent of the Occidental students of the history of education in India are compelled to gather what they can of the Oriental interpretation from the writings of those Indians that have expressed themselves in English.

#### Indian Education before British Rule

Altekar (564) traced the history of Indian education to 1200 A.D. and in referring to very early possibilities claimed there is clear cultural evidence that the art of writing was known in the centuries 1600 to 1200 B.C. His work was well organized, seemed logical, was interesting in its explanations, and cited many authorities. Another Indian writer (565) said that "though India, with its wealth of thought dating back to about the twentieth century before Christ, with its six great systems of philosophy, and its

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 433.



marvelous psychological literature, has been England's dependency for over 150 years, English writers on the study of the mind almost invariably begin by stating that the light of philosophy and psychology first dawned among the Greeks (565: 38). He proceeded to compare Hindu conceptions of psychology with those of the great thinkers of the western countries and in the comparison told much of the development of Hindu thought. Daudpota (570) sketched very briefly the history of Indian education before the British occupation. Law (590) dealt with education from about 1000 A.D. to the close of the seventeenth century and confined his study to the Mohammedan influence on learning in India, a field that other writers have barely touched and generally without any appeal to original sources or documentation. The Mohammedans have long been a minority group in India and it is natural that once having lost control of the country, their part in its cultural history was left in the background.

A few Occidental writers have ventured to attempt outlines or accounts of education in India before British influence entered the scene. They cannot be accepted as reliable and often are plainly more biased than differences of language and religion warrant. For instance, Thomas (596) said: "The history of Mohammedan education in India we have no ambition to investigate. Everywhere guiltless of system, it was more than usually fragmentary in a country where Moslem rule was, except during the briefest periods, synonymous with anarchy" (596: 2). Thus he dismissed in 1891 a subject that Law has been much praised for studying carefully in 1915. Sen (595) was somewhat more liberal in both mental attitude and time and effort given to the subject. He frankly admitted his indebtedness to Law (590). Keay (587) who wrote in 1918 deserves to be classed among the best of the Occidental interpreters of ancient Indian education. He introduced his inquiry with the statement that the history of the ancient education of India is to a large extent an unexplored tract. He further declared unequivocally that "any attempt to foist even the most satisfactory of European systems of education upon India would be doomed to failure, and even if successful would be a great disaster" (587: 7). That India might profit by its experiences, he conceived that the study of ancient Indian education was most important and deserving of far more attention than it had received. Keay was plainly imbued with those principles of his times in regard to national self-determination and the rights of peoples to develop along the lines best suited to them and their environment. Brahmanic, Buddhist, Mohammedan, and popular education alike were treated with consideration.

### **English Educational Policies in India**

The period of English domination in India is covered by English official and unofficial writers and some Indian students. Documentation and original sources for telling the story clearly and well seem adequate, but Basu (566) wrote in 1922:

The history of education in India under British rule has yet to be properly written. It should be remembered that in the pre-British period, India was not an illiterate country. This land was far more advanced in education than many a Christian country of the West (566:11).

He told of education from about 1813 to 1854, part of the time that India was under the rule of the East India Company, and was drastically adverse in his criticisms of policies that English writers do not, for the most part, attempt to defend. Howell (573) wrote in 1872:

Education in India under the British government was first ignored, then violently and successfully opposed, then conducted on a system now universally admitted to be erroneous, and finally placed on its present footing (573:1).

Howell was writing in an official capacity and was really reporting on education in India in 1870-71 but he took the occasion to review the period from 1780 to 1854 and support his thesis with many data and quotations from official documents. He closed the review with the following:

The narrow policy that marked a section of the administration at the close of the last century has long since passed away, or only remains as a strange relic of a strange era, opposed to modern views, and requiring to be explained to be even understood. That policy was never accepted by men of the first order, and has been amply atoned by the steadily liberal action of the whole government dating from the Charter of 1813 (573:73).

James (586), who wrote in 1911, was principal of a college in India and worked from the theory that an idea is greater than the men who advocate it and independent of them, and works on when their voices are silent. On that basis he reviewed British policies from 1797 to 1910 and found that in the main they had been justified by results. Law (589) told the story of the unorganized efforts of Europeans to provide education in parts of India before the public authorities recognized that it was properly one of their duties. To Mayhew (591) we are indebted for one of the best, keenest, and most thorough analyses of British educational policy in India from 1835 to 1920. In the latter year the administration of education was decentralized and turned over to the provincial governments; Mayhew wrote of the situation as he saw it while administration was centralized. His work is a criticism in the proper sense. Monk (592) was not so much reviewing history as suggesting plans for the direction that education should take as it came more under the control of Indians. Oak (593) offered a brief sketch of the period from 1813 to about 1925. His study has the stamp of American influence and a university thesis flavor. Thomas (596) also presented a university student type of discussion but from an English university and a comparison of Oak and Thomas is by no means entirely favorable to American university methods of treating large social questions. Trevelyan (597) wrote in 1838 just at the time that some of the most momentous policies in Indian education were in the making. His is a good expression of the thinking of those years.

### Christian Missionaries

As to the influence of the Christian missionaries, it has been so important a factor that few of the publications mentioned above fail to tell something of it. Among the studies in which it is the main or sole topic, Bryce (567) was one of the earliest. The 1920 report of the Conference of Missionary Societies (569) was eighty years later with all that the lapse of time implies in changed conditions and outlook. Finally the Commission on Christian Higher Education (568) reviewed the entire situation with the purpose of charting a course for the future.

### Official Documentation

We turn now to official documentation and its historical significance. Education in India under British direction is singularly rich in it and many of the more important documents are easily available. The *Collection of Despatches* (572) is useful but not accompanied by commentaries on the conditions that caused the government to act as it did. The *Selections from Educational Records* (575, 576) are much better in that respect; the historical setting of each important document was given. Such interesting papers as the Minute of Warren Hastings donating a piece of land on which to build a college for the education of Indians, and Macaulay's famed Minute of February 2, 1835, were included.

The government has long printed an annual report on education in India (574). But it has had another policy somewhat more useful from a historical standpoint; every five years since 1882 a quinquennial report has come as a summary for the period (577-585). The review for 1932-37 should soon be off the press. Besides these regular accounts, a considerable number of the findings of committees appointed to investigate all of Indian education or some special phase of it are to be had. An important example is the Interim Report of the Indian Statutory Commission (571). Moreover, several of the provinces publish annual and quinquennial reviews.

What the government has done in the way of investigating exceptionally important problems in Indian education is illustrated by the works of West (598) and Paranjpe (594) which dealt with the ever present difficulty of the relationship of the vernacular and the English languages.

## B. China

One who undertakes to study the history of education in China should realize at the beginning of his task that he is entering upon the longest history of education for the largest group of people in the world. Some records of Chinese education date back about 43 centuries and the number of Chinese is between 440 and 490 millions.

### **Education in China before 1900**

For the purposes of this article, the entire time is divided into two periods; the first being all the centuries up to about 1900, the second, Chinese education in the twentieth century. For those earlier ages one good account, Biot (599), is available in French. He wrote in the 1840's as a member of the Asiatic Society in Paris, and based his work on a study of Chinese books and records. Kuo (615) also told of the earlier centuries but that part of his history was largely taken from Biot. Lee (617) was educated in China and in the United States and was teaching in Hawaii when he compiled his volume as an aid to his classes. It is among the best of the many attempts to present a brief outline of the long, long history of China. Purcell (623) is one of the few Occidentals with understanding enough of the Chinese language to take exception to some of the statements of Biot. His chapter on the old system of education is among the best of his writings. Stewart (625) also dealt with old China, not in the usual chronological way, but by analysis of the main psychological, philosophical, and religious influences to which the Chinese have been subjected. Taoism, Confucianism, Buddhism, and Islamism were all discussed and their effects noted. Kuno (614) told something of the early history of education in China but from the special angle of being better able to interpret to college authorities in the United States the comparative value of training in China. Martin (619) wrote in 1881 of old China and described in some detail the system of education then in vogue.

### **Chinese Education in the Twentieth Century**

Turning now to the modern period, which some writers date from 1842, and others later, several apparently responsible writers were busy around the years 1910 to 1913 when the fall of the Manchu dynasty was coming and the Republic was being established. Bland (601) in 1912 told that immediate story with much sympathy for the Manchus whom he considered relatively successful in their governing of China, and no little adverse criticism of "Young China" and what he termed its chauvinism. Brown (602) wrote at the same time but in a more detached way. He reviewed the impact of modern science and manufacture, and of economic, social, and political forces on China, as well as the influence of changing international relations, and credited them with bringing about the revolution. His chapter on the intellectual awakening and education is especially good. In the series of discussions at the second decennial celebration of Clark University, Blakeslee (600) included five on various phases of Chinese education, including the history of missionary education in China. Kuo (615), previously mentioned, was among the earlier of the strong students who came to the United States from China to do graduate work in education. The best contribution in his volume was for the period from 1842 to about 1914. Burton (603) was also of this time, 1911. She wrote that "of all the remarkable changes which have taken place in China within the last decade,

none is more significant than the change of attitude toward the education of women." This is a statement not easily challenged, and told interestingly and well the changes that came from 1842 to the date of writing. The work of Gascoyne-Cecil (611) impresses one as having been rather futile in that both he and the group he represented were trailing far behind the realities and necessities of the situation when he was sent to China about 1910 to study missionary education and report on the advisability of founding a western university in China.

### **Influence of the Nationalist Movement**

Next come a few writers in the 1920's when the nationalist movement was taking stronger shape and form and the teachings of Sun Yat Sen were being more and more adopted by the Chinese. Monroe's first brief product (621) was like that of Kuno (614), written for the very limited purpose of aiding university authorities in the United States to form opinions on the relative strength of universities in China. His later work (620) is a sympathetic account of the life and efforts of Dr. Sun and of the nationalist movement. It includes their influences on education. Tao's factual statement (627) made in 1924 is peculiarly valuable for comparative purposes if read in connection with Chuang (605) who in 1936 discussed the dozen eventful years since 1924. The report of the committee (604) which studied Christian higher education in China around 1921 and 1922 was the first of a series that later included India and Japan. Its historical sketch was brief, its survey of the conditions then existing was good. Cressy (607) in 1925 and 1926 carried the work further in the manner of education surveys in the United States. Goodnow (612) did peculiarly well in discussing the difficulties of the Chinese language and their effects on education. Purcell (623) taking advantage of his knowledge of the language dealt at length with the same problem, but his suggested solution, the adoption of basic English, is so questionable that one doubts the validity of much of his writing.

In the early 1930's came that remarkable attempt of the League of Nations (616), on invitation from China, to evaluate the Chinese scheme of education and point the way to future development. Its Mission of Educational Experts, one from each of four European countries, saw the situation through European eyes—it could not do otherwise—and was adversely critical of some important and powerful influences on education in China that it may not have understood. Djung (608) wrote while a student in the United States and showed the influences surrounding him by beginning with the statement that "the history of mankind is chiefly the history of his progress toward democracy." He traced painstakingly the changes in Chinese education from 1900 to 1933. Johnstone (613) recorded the influence of the *San Min Chu-i* as he saw it. Liu (618) wrote of the relation of the government to religious education in 1932 when that question was much in the foreground in a number of countries.



Nationalism in education was the thesis of Peake (622) who dealt with modern China, from 1860 on, and attempted to assess the extent to which the Chinese were using education to inculcate the political theories connected with the revolution and the nationalist movement. He decided that "not only has a fair treatment of the world at large, its history and its contributions been consciously eliminated in favor of the nationalistic emphasis, but also material designed to fit the student to his more vital life in the family and the community has been reduced to a minimum, so that the conception of the nation as the supreme form of social grouping may be indoctrinated and all vital problems be seen as national ones which the state alone can solve through its political machinery" (622: 155). Perhaps he overstated the situation. Tsang (628) wrote a year later on about the same subject and definitely refuted much of the contention quoted above. Among other pertinent comments, he observed that "culture is for life, not life for culture. Happily China seems to be quite sensitive, on a whole, to the pulse of modern life, with little of the slavish lingering over what is sometimes called one's national spiritual heritage" (628: 227).

Stuart (626) in 1933 handled the work of the Christian missions in China. Forster (609) and Smith (624) treated of very special phases of education in China. The former, an Englishman, and professor of education at the University of Hong Kong, described the education provided in that English concession for both Chinese and foreigners. The latter wrote, after the manner of an educationist trained in the United States, on elementary education in a definite locality. Neither was then attempting to give a view of all China.

### **Just before the Present War**

We have now to consider the situation as it was about 1936 or shortly before the present Japanese-Chinese war began. Forster (610) again wrote this time about all China, and expressed the view that China is inclined to re-examine her own gods once more in the belief that after all they are not quite so lacking in grace as first contacts with the West seemed to suggest. In the light of later events his discussion of the Japanese threat is exceedingly interesting. Wang (629, 630) wrote from the vantage point of one in a leading official position in education in China. These were factual statements and entitled to the presumption that they are correct. Under the influence of the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations, Chyne (606) compiled in 1936 his handbook to tell other nations of the origin, history, membership, activities, etc., of the cultural organizations in China. In the past year or year and a half, many of them have undoubtedly ceased to function and education in China must have changed greatly. But that story must come later. Meanwhile, it is worth noting that in all the histories of wars and in all the inquiries into their various effects on nations, no good account seems ever to have been written as to the exact effects of war on education.

### C. Japan

Recorded history of education in Japan dates to the century preceding the dawn of the Christian era and is accordingly much briefer than the history of education in either India or China. Most writers, both Japanese and others, divide it into two periods: pre-Meiji, to 1868 when the Tokugawa Shogunate fell and Japan began to emerge from feudalism; and Meiji, or the period of the restoration, from 1868 to the present. It is more easily told and less complicated than that of either India or China, for Japan, in area and population, is a smaller nation, homogeneous, centralized in government, mainly unilingual, and for the most part united in religious belief.

#### Education in the Pre-Meiji Era

The history for the pre-Meiji era is largely the story of the influence of Chinese and Korean learning with the concomitants of Buddhism and Confucianism, though in the latter part of the era dealings with the Portuguese and the Dutch and the introduction of Christianity were important. This history has been sketched briefly in several publications as an introduction to later events, for the purpose of producing contrasts or providing a background. The outline history of the Japanese Department of Education (641), Kikuchi (645), and Sharp (651) have accounts of this type. Lombard (647) in 1913 felt that it was in itself worthy of careful study. Being at that time a professor in Doshisha University and a lecturer in the Imperial University at Kyoto, he must have had, for an Occidental, an unusual knowledge of the Japanese language and historical documents. He treated of the first intellectual awakening; and of government education from 662 to 1603; and from 1603 when the Tokugawa Shogunate came into power to its overthrow in 1868.

Keenleyside and Thomas (643) were more emphatic about the importance of that earlier era on the ground that "the student who believes that it is enough to know Japan from the time of the Restoration in 1868 can never understand the country, and least of all her modern system of education and its many ramifications throughout her national life" (643: 3). They saw in the history of Japan to 1868, periods when the Japanese people were adopting as much as possible from other countries, followed by times of self-isolation and assimilation. They did exceptionally well in paralleling those alternating periods with the larger trends of events in other countries.

#### Education in the Meiji Era

The department of education of Japan has documented its educational system well since about 1872. There are the regular annual reports (639) issued in English, presumably in abridged form, and generally from six to eight years later than the year reported. They should be available since

1873. In the earlier years they included considerable textual discussion of events; more recently they have been mainly undigested statistics. Moreover, the department has from time to time published surveys of education (638, 640, 642). Similar surveys appeared in 1926, 1930, and 1935. Further, it has regularly presented good accounts of the nation's schools at such international gatherings as the Philadelphia International Exhibition (641), the Universal Exposition of Paris, 1878, International Health and Education Exhibition at London, 1884, International Industrial and Cotton Exhibition at New Orleans, 1885, World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago, 1893, Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis, 1904, and the Panama Pacific International Exposition at San Francisco, 1915.

Among the unofficial writings in English by Japanese, those of Kikuchi (645) are among the most important. He had been minister of education in Japan and president of the Imperial University of Kyoto. In a series of lectures he was telling educators in England what the educational situation was in Japan in 1908 and could speak with authority and from first-hand knowledge. The brief sketches by Sawayanagi (650) and Hita (637) afford comparisons between 1925 and 1936. The other accounts in this class dealt with special phases of Japanese education. Abe (631) presented the colonial policies in education. Ashida (632) discussed that situation which is so trying in many countries, the relation of the state to religious education. Hayashi (636) wrote of the expansion of secondary education. Teachers associations in Japan was Shinohara's topic (652), and that most significant of questions, the philosophy underlying the system of education was taken up by Yoshida (656).

What Japan was trying to do in education in the first years of the Meiji era is well expressed by Mori (648) who asked the opinions of prominent men in the United States. The replies of Peter Cooper, Mark Hopkins, and others must have influenced greatly the trend of Japanese education in those early days. That Japan should have employed a citizen of the United States to be superintendent of schools and colleges seems unthinkable in these times of intense nationalism, but such was the case, and the man so employed, David Murray, wrote a report to the vice-minister of education in Japan (654). Sharp (651) was an English educator working in India. He went to Japan to see if the Japanese scheme of education at that time, 1906, offered anything of value to education in India. He decided that it did not because of the great differences between the two countries, but his work is of much historical value as a clear picture of conditions then prevailing in Japan.

### **Missionary Influence**

Lombard (647), as a part of his study, told of the beginnings of Christian education in Japan in the latter part of the sixteenth century and ascribed the suppression of Christianity and foreign intercourse in the

early part of the seventeenth century to mutual distrust among the religious orders, and the evident political intrigue of high officials with Philip III of Spain and Portugal. However that may be, Japan was closed to foreign influence from about 1612 to 1868. Then Christian missionaries began to work in the country and a Commission on Christian Education (634) attempted in 1932 to assess their accomplishments. Avison (633) and Reischauer (649) wrote also from the missionary point of view. De Forest (635) fixed 1869 as the date of the first baptism of Japanese women as Protestant Christians and recounted with unusual charm the influence of Christianity on Japanese women. Underwood (653), while a mission worker, wrote more of the general school system in telling of education in Korea. His work may be classed among those dealing with colonial policies as well as missionary effort. The writing of Avison (633) also dealt only with Korea. Lewis (646) wrote in that frame of mind of 1903 that conceived it the duty of the West to direct the East and bring it to Western ways of thinking.

Keesing's compilation (644) provided a Pacific-basin background for Japanese education.

## CHAPTER XII

Education in the Ancient World<sup>1</sup>

H. G. GOOD

ANCIENT HISTORY, which still ends in 500 A.D., no longer begins with Homer but at an indeterminate point some three thousand years earlier. Records, while still valuable, are no longer necessary for history. The concept of prehistory has faded, but except for the important change in perspective the history of education has been affected very little. The conscious molding of man in harmony with an ideal, we are still told, is a Greek and not an Oriental concept. Only time can tell whether scholars will continue in this conviction.

## Education of the Citizen in Greece

The most important recent work on Greek education, by Jaeger (710), took the position indicated above. Only the first volume has been published; and this has been translated by Highet (711). Jaeger's sources were the literature, philosophy, and politics of Greece. A cosmos expressing an ideal was the central Hellenic notion and this guided Greek education. The Sophists first developed a conscious method but they led a movement to educate leaders rather than citizens. Jaeger accepted Plato's portrait of the Sophists rather than Grote's account (701). From another standpoint Jaeger dealt with the problem whether on Greek principles humanism can be harmonized with naturalism on the one side and supernaturalism on the other.

Two of Nettleship's works (729, 730) are still among the most valuable interpretations of Plato and have recently been reprinted although one of them was published in 1880. Fite (692) wrote a destructive criticism of Plato which in spite of its obvious lack of sympathy with the subject is not without value. Crossman (680) put the *Republic* into modern paraphrase and criticized it from the standpoint of a revolutionary Christian democrat. On Aristotle, Burnet (675) and Davidson (683, 684) are useful and on the educational writings which go under the name of Plutarch, Westaway (759). Hodgson (708) dealt with early Christian education. Upon the influence of Greek ideas on the Christian tradition Hatch (705) was enlightening. Also on the influence of Greece and Rome upon the West the histories of scholarship by Peck (735) and Sandys (743) were important contributions. Several of the most general reference works will be indicated here. They are such as the following: the *Cambridge Ancient History*, the Pauly-Wissowa *Real-Encyclopaedia*, the Daremberg-Saglio *Dictionnaire des Antiquités* (682), and Harper's *Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquity*.

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 436.



### Physical Education and the Ephebia

Two of the three volumes by Grasberger (700) on ancient education dealt with physical education: the first with the elementary training and the third with the advanced physical and military education of both the Greeks and the Romans. Grasberger's second volume treated of intellectual education.

The most thorough treatments in English of Greek athletics and physical education were written by Gardiner (696, 697). Both of his works were expert and critical presentations of the abundant materials which are found both in the literature and in remains and inscriptions, by a classical scholar who had wide experience in athletics. A new translation of Philostratos was provided by Woody (764). Manning (720) wrote on professionalism in Greece and Ghinopoulo (698) combed the ancient literatures for evidences of child care and the treatment of children's diseases. Related to this last named work is a little book by Klein (715) who presented descriptions and pictures of museum objects which illustrate child-life in ancient times. Attempts to trace the sources of Greek athletics in the Minoan-Mycenaean civilization have been made by Burrage (676), Schütze (747), Hyde (709), and Ridington (739) and with considerable success considering the scarcity of the material. Evans (690), in a presidential address, showed that the supposed miracle of the Hellenic mind and its sudden bloom are coming to seem less extraordinary as we learn more about its historical antecedents.

*Ephebic Institution*—A detailed history of the ephebic institution was given by Grasberger (700), named above, and by Girard (699), Dumont (689), and others. Dumont and also Dittenberger (686) presented the most important inscriptions. But the whole subject was reopened by the recovery of Aristotle's Constitution of Athens. Brenot (672), Lofberg (717), and Forbes (693) generally supported the conclusion which Wilamowitz (761) first proposed, namely, that the ephebic institution at Athens did not antedate 335 B.C. Lofberg was one of those who were not entirely convinced. The Athenian constitution may be consulted in Ross (741).

*The Iuventus in Roman education*—A striking phenomenon in the social history of the Roman Empire is the rise of the institution of the iuvenes, an aristocratic athletic and military organization of youths preparing for state service. Comparison with the Greek ephebia is inevitable. Mohler (725) has most fully discussed the sources and Carrington (678) presented materials on the remains of the Iuventus of Pompeii. For the present the date of the origin of the Roman Iuventus is placed in the reign of Augustus who is credited with its institution.

### Origin of Writing among the Greeks

Another question of date is that of the art of writing among the Greeks and of the acquisition of the original of the present Greek alphabet. Carpenter (677) proposed the seventh century for the latter date but his

### Education in China before 1900

For the purposes of this article, the entire time is divided into two periods; the first being all the centuries up to about 1900, the second, Chinese education in the twentieth century. For those earlier ages one good account, Biot (599), is available in French. He wrote in the 1840's as a member of the Asiatic Society in Paris, and based his work on a study of Chinese books and records. Kuo (615) also told of the earlier centuries but that part of his history was largely taken from Biot. Lee (617) was educated in China and in the United States and was teaching in Hawaii when he compiled his volume as an aid to his classes. It is among the best of the many attempts to present a brief outline of the long, long history of China. Purcell (623) is one of the few Occidentals with understanding enough of the Chinese language to take exception to some of the statements of Biot. His chapter on the old system of education is among the best of his writings. Stewart (625) also dealt with old China, not in the usual chronological way, but by analysis of the main psychological, philosophical, and religious influences to which the Chinese have been subjected. Taoism, Confucianism, Buddhism, and Islamism were all discussed and their effects noted. Kuno (614) told something of the early history of education in China but from the special angle of being better able to interpret to college authorities in the United States the comparative value of training in China. Martin (619) wrote in 1881 of old China and described in some detail the system of education then in vogue.

### Chinese Education in the Twentieth Century

Turning now to the modern period, which some writers date from 1842, and others later, several apparently responsible writers were busy around the years 1910 to 1913 when the fall of the Manchu dynasty was coming and the Republic was being established. Bland (601) in 1912 told that immediate story with much sympathy for the Manchus whom he considered relatively successful in their governing of China, and no little adverse criticism of "Young China" and what he termed its chauvinism. Brown (602) wrote at the same time but in a more detached way. He reviewed the impact of modern science and manufacture, and of economic, social, and political forces on China, as well as the influence of changing international relations, and credited them with bringing about the revolution. His chapter on the intellectual awakening and education is especially good. In the series of discussions at the second decennial celebration of Clark University, Blakeslee (600) included five on various phases of Chinese education, including the history of missionary education in China. Kuo (615), previously mentioned, was among the earlier of the strong students who came to the United States from China to do graduate work in education. The best contribution in his volume was for the period from 1842 to about 1914. Burton (603) was also of this time, 1911. She wrote that "of all the remarkable changes which have taken place in China within the last decade,

none is more significant than the change of attitude toward the education of women." This is a statement not easily challenged, and told interestingly and well the changes that came from 1842 to the date of writing. The work of Gascoyne-Cecil (611) impresses one as having been rather futile in that both he and the group he represented were trailing far behind the realities and necessities of the situation when he was sent to China about 1910 to study missionary education and report on the advisability of founding a western university in China.

### **Influence of the Nationalist Movement**

Next come a few writers in the 1920's when the nationalist movement was taking stronger shape and form and the teachings of Sun Yat Sen were being more and more adopted by the Chinese. Monroe's first brief product (621) was like that of Kuno (614), written for the very limited purpose of aiding university authorities in the United States to form opinions on the relative strength of universities in China. His later work (620) is a sympathetic account of the life and efforts of Dr. Sun and of the nationalist movement. It includes their influences on education. Tao's factual statement (627) made in 1924 is peculiarly valuable for comparative purposes if read in connection with Chuang (605) who in 1936 discussed the dozen eventful years since 1924. The report of the committee (604) which studied Christian higher education in China around 1921 and 1922 was the first of a series that later included India and Japan. Its historical sketch was brief, its survey of the conditions then existing was good. Cressy (607) in 1925 and 1926 carried the work further in the manner of education surveys in the United States. Goodnow (612) did peculiarly well in discussing the difficulties of the Chinese language and their effects on education. Purcell (623) taking advantage of his knowledge of the language dealt at length with the same problem, but his suggested solution, the adoption of basic English, is so questionable that one doubts the validity of much of his writing.

In the early 1930's came that remarkable attempt of the League of Nations (616), on invitation from China, to evaluate the Chinese scheme of education and point the way to future development. Its Mission of Educational Experts, one from each of four European countries, saw the situation through European eyes—it could not do otherwise—and was adversely critical of some important and powerful influences on education in China that it may not have understood. Djung (608) wrote while a student in the United States and showed the influences surrounding him by beginning with the statement that "the history of mankind is chiefly the history of his progress toward democracy." He traced painstakingly the changes in Chinese education from 1900 to 1933. Johnstone (613) recorded the influence of the *San Min Chu-i* as he saw it. Liu (618) wrote of the relation of the government to religious education in 1932 when that question was much in the foreground in a number of countries.

Nationalism in education was the thesis of Peake (622) who dealt with modern China, from 1860 on, and attempted to assess the extent to which the Chinese were using education to inculcate the political theories connected with the revolution and the nationalist movement. He decided that "not only has a fair treatment of the world at large, its history and its contributions been consciously eliminated in favor of the nationalistic emphasis, but also material designed to fit the student to his more vital life in the family and the community has been reduced to a minimum, so that the conception of the nation as the supreme form of social grouping may be indoctrinated and all vital problems be seen as national ones which the state alone can solve through its political machinery" (622: 155). Perhaps he overstated the situation. Tsang (628) wrote a year later on about the same subject and definitely refuted much of the contention quoted above. Among other pertinent comments, he observed that "culture is for life, not life for culture. Happily China seems to be quite sensitive, on a whole, to the pulse of modern life, with little of the slavish lingering over what is sometimes called one's national spiritual heritage" (628: 227).

Stuart (626) in 1933 handled the work of the Christian missions in China. Forster (609) and Smith (624) treated of very special phases of education in China. The former, an Englishman, and professor of education at the University of Hong Kong, described the education provided in that English concession for both Chinese and foreigners. The latter wrote, after the manner of an educationist trained in the United States, on elementary education in a definite locality. Neither was then attempting to give a view of all China.

### **Just before the Present War**

We have now to consider the situation as it was about 1936 or shortly before the present Japanese-Chinese war began. Forster (610) again wrote this time about all China, and expressed the view that China is inclined to re-examine her own gods once more in the belief that after all they are not quite so lacking in grace as first contacts with the West seemed to suggest. In the light of later events his discussion of the Japanese threat is exceedingly interesting. Wang (629, 630) wrote from the vantage point of one in a leading official position in education in China. These were factual statements and entitled to the presumption that they are correct. Under the influence of the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations, Chyne (606) compiled in 1936 his handbook to tell other nations of the origin, history, membership, activities, etc., of the cultural organizations in China. In the past year or year and a half, many of them have undoubtedly ceased to function and education in China must have changed greatly. But that story must come later. Meanwhile, it is worth noting that in all the histories of wars and in all the inquiries into their various effects on nations, no good account seems ever to have been written as to the exact effects of war on education.

### C. Japan

Recorded history of education in Japan dates to the century preceding the dawn of the Christian era and is accordingly much briefer than the history of education in either India or China. Most writers, both Japanese and others, divide it into two periods: pre-Meiji, to 1868 when the Tokugawa Shogunate fell and Japan began to emerge from feudalism; and Meiji, or the period of the restoration, from 1868 to the present. It is more easily told and less complicated than that of either India or China, for Japan, in area and population, is a smaller nation, homogeneous, centralized in government, mainly unilingual, and for the most part united in religious belief.

#### Education in the Pre-Meiji Era

The history for the pre-Meiji era is largely the story of the influence of Chinese and Korean learning with the concomitants of Buddhism and Confucianism, though in the latter part of the era dealings with the Portuguese and the Dutch and the introduction of Christianity were important. This history has been sketched briefly in several publications as an introduction to later events, for the purpose of producing contrasts or providing a background. The outline history of the Japanese Department of Education (641), Kikuchi (645), and Sharp (651) have accounts of this type. Lombard (647) in 1913 felt that it was in itself worthy of careful study. Being at that time a professor in Doshisha University and a lecturer in the Imperial University at Kyoto, he must have had, for an Occidental, an unusual knowledge of the Japanese language and historical documents. He treated of the first intellectual awakening; and of government education from 662 to 1603; and from 1603 when the Tokugawa Shogunate came into power to its overthrow in 1868.

Keenleyside and Thomas (643) were more emphatic about the importance of that earlier era on the ground that "the student who believes that it is enough to know Japan from the time of the Restoration in 1868 can never understand the country, and least of all her modern system of education and its many ramifications throughout her national life" (643: 3). They saw in the history of Japan to 1868, periods when the Japanese people were adopting as much as possible from other countries, followed by times of self-isolation and assimilation. They did exceptionally well in paralleling those alternating periods with the larger trends of events in other countries.

#### Education in the Meiji Era

The department of education of Japan has documented its educational system well since about 1872. There are the regular annual reports (639) issued in English, presumably in abridged form, and generally from six to eight years later than the year reported. They should be available since



in the mother tongue of the pupils. To complicate matters, many natives view with strong suspicion any attempt to limit their education to vernacular instruction and insist on studying English so as to have access to all they believe that the West can teach them.

The general scheme of education being introduced by the British government in her dependencies can best be stated in the words of the Memorandum on the Education of African Communities, published in 1935: "The first task of education is to raise the standard alike of character and efficiency of the bulk of the people but provision must also be made for the training of those who are required to fill posts in the administrative and technical services as well as those who, as chiefs, will occupy positions of exceptional trust and responsibility. As resources permit, the door of advancement, through higher education, must be increasingly opened for those who, by character, ability, and temperament, show themselves fitted to profit by such education." Thus we find such movements as the development of a university in Singapore, Malaya, in the foundation of university classes at Fourah Bay, in Sierra Leone, at Yaba, in Nigeria, and at Achimota College in the Gold Coast, West Africa, and Makerere in East Africa.

### The French Colonies

The French system of education in Africa differs widely from that of Great Britain, in that its political function is recognized, and its aim is assimilation. Its principles are laid down by the colonial ministry in collaboration with the Ministry of Education.

... Education is the very foundation of colonial policy, and that the value assignable to our overseas possessions is to be measured first of all by the value of the individual in virtue of the instruction which he receives. ... Education has as its first effect a large increase in the value of colonial industrial output through multiplying the intellectual abilities and capacities among the masses of colonial workers ... as skilled mechanics, foremen, inspectors, clerks or headclerks, will supplement the numerical insufficiency of Europeans and satisfy the growing demands of agricultural, industrial, and commercial colonization enterprises ... should also train native officials of various categories ... train native noncommissioned officers ... at this moment when the generous and wise application of a policy of cooperation is causing us to give native representatives increasingly easy access to consultative assemblies ... education should develop in them faculties and capacities necessary for useful collaboration with us. ... There is urgent need for developing, without further delay, all the educational institutions which should render our subjects and native wards ... more capable of playing their part in French civilization and human progress (768:272-76).

The principles of the French Republic are reflected in parallel systems of schools, one identical with the curriculum followed in France and the other training for life in Africa. The classification is not, however, one of race or color but depends on the ability of the pupil to profit by one or the other system. The African and French children study together and compete on equal terms. In French West Africa the state is primarily

responsible for education. Few mission schools receive subsidies and education is entirely secular and is free at all stages.

The French language is in universal use, and secondary and vocational training is limited to the demand for its products. In the lowest grade of schools most of the time is employed in learning French, and the teaching in the elementary schools is devoted mainly to the improvement of local conditions. The primary schools, the highest of these three grades of popular schools, have a high standard of efficiency and combine literary subjects with agriculture and carpentry. As in British East Africa, most of these have European headmasters. Selected pupils go on to higher education and are employed in various government departments.

An interesting development is the arrangement of courses in agriculture and hygiene for adults. These are in the vernacular and are well attended.

Girls' education is not so advanced as boys' education, and indeed in both the French and the Belgian colonies this fact is even more noticeable than in the British dependencies.

French educational principles are the same for all its colonies but in French Congo and French Cameroons development lags considerably behind that of French West Africa.

The attitude of France to her dependencies and that which colors her native schools is that the dependencies are not separate countries, each to be considered by itself, but rather that they are all parts of one unified group, the French Empire. The offices in Paris which administer the colonies do not have a separate office for each dependency, as do the British in London for their colonies, for this would tend to divide the colonies from France. "Both France and America . . . have introduced into their dependencies educational institutions identical with those of the homeland, and both, though in many respects France more than America, attempt to give cultural, political, and even social equality to all subjects as they prove their fitness" (779:34).

It is understood by French administrators that between the native of Africa living in customary conditions and the fully assimilated French citizen there is no intermediate position, and the educational policy of the colonies concentrates on the formation of such a group.

### **Belgian Congo**

The Belgian government has delegated most of its educational work to the missions, and the national or Roman Catholic missions are assisted by the state. All education is free and inspection of schools is largely performed by the missionaries.

The aim of the village schools, which are staffed by Africans, is to spread "moral discipline, ideas of hygiene, the ferment of progress, respect, and sympathy for" Belgian colonial enterprise. The middle schools, located chiefly in towns, have a three-year course, and their curriculum includes general and vocational education.

Some of the mines and commercial companies have established schools for the children of their native workers and some have technical schools for training artisans and skilled labor.

The whole policy of the Belgian administration is thus different from that of any other European power in Africa. Its aim is gradually to replace European skilled labor by African and neither seeks to "adapt education to the needs of the people" as in the British possessions nor to assimilate the educated population as in the French nor yet to establish a color bar as in the Union of South Africa. Mining and railways have until now loomed large in Belgian Congo enterprises, and Africans have shown themselves fully capable of acquiring the necessary technical skill to enable them to take part in these developments. Perhaps when the country has passed the stage of initial expansion of its industrial and agricultural schemes, a more literary type of education may be introduced to a system that at present appears to be more technical than general.

### **The Dutch in Java**

Although the area of Java is relatively small, there is a vast population with a density of 800 persons to the square mile. The Javanese have a more highly cultured organization than that of the African subjects of the British and French, but the Dutch solution of the problem of inter-racial relations in education is of interest when compared to the methods of other powers.

The government of the country does not differ widely from that of other dependencies, though it may be that the *Dessa*, or village commune, has more power to express the will of the people. It is where the European authority comes in contact with the native authority that the chief difference is seen, for instead of superimposing European government upon native government as in British colonies, or substituting European forms as do the French, the Dutch in Java allows the two systems to exist freely side by side.

The village elementary vernacular schools are supported entirely by the government, and provide a five-year course. The *Dessa* schools, for which the government and the village commune are jointly responsible, provide a three-year course, and at special centers two years are added to bring pupils into line with the elementary schools.

The Dutch have made a great effort to secure the benefits of education for their subjects and actually support 2000 village schools and maintain 16,000 *Dessa* schools, all of which are efficient and adequately supervised.

On leaving these schools, pupils may go to boarding schools where the principles of peasant farming are taught, where they are trained free, and where they live on the produce of the land. Trades are taught in two-year vernacular courses in towns and in a few villages. Teachers are trained for the higher standards of village schools in normal schools and there are

facilities for agricultural training. Dessa school teachers are usually trained on the pupil-teacher system.

The primary schools are in three divisions—one for children of Dutch parents, for children of mixed race, and for children of native homes where Dutch is the language in habitual use; one for Chinese children; and one for native children whose language is not Dutch. In all schools, however, Dutch is used in the higher standards and no racial distinction is made in secondary schools. College and university education, technical, veterinary, and agricultural training schools all maintain high standards and are accessible to members of any race.

A consideration of the two types of education, European language and vernacular, illustrates the dualism of the Dutch policy, the recognition of two separate worlds in their dependencies and the distinctions made are those of language and not those of race. The practical result of this is to prepare people to live in the society to which they will belong.

view was not accepted and a lively debate developed. Ullman (753, 754, 755), who took the most radical counter-position and suggested 2000 B.C. as a possible date for the introduction of writing into Greece, derived some support from McCown (718). Harland (704) gave evidence which pointed to about 1200 B.C. for the first Greek script, Stillwell (749) showed that writing was well developed in the eighth century while Tod (752) gave a useful summary of the controversy. Newberry (731) even argued that the Greek alphabet may have been derived from the Sumerians. Kenyon (713) supported an early date; and he showed further that the codex form of the book developed much earlier than had been known. Obviously the introduction of writing and the invention of the codex have important bearings upon the history of education.

### **Tablets and Exercises from Greek Schools**

Numerous tablets, ostraca or pottery scraps, and papyri containing school exercises have been found, and from time to time published. Crusius (681) more than thirty years ago published the contents of some ostraca. J. G. Milne (724) gave out a larger series from the second century before Christ. These revealed customs and exercises which Quintilian noticed and approved three centuries later. Kenyon (714) reproduced two third-century tablets similar in form and exercises to the horn-book but containing also an extensive series of grammatical forms. Ziebarth (765, 766) and Beudel (664) gave still more extensive examples and accounts of similar materials.

Related to the school boys' forms and syllabaries was Greek shorthand in that it was based upon a syllabic scheme. The evidence was presented by H. Milne (723). Then as now shorthand writers were able to read their notes freely only when they were able to recall the context pretty clearly.

### **Surveys and General Topics**

An admirable description of Greek education, chiefly of elementary education and of the period 600-300 B.C., was prepared by Freeman (694). On physical education his work was defective because he used sources which were out of date when he wrote; and he did not live to complete his survey of Greek theory. But he treated Spartan education with full detail and with a sympathy which forms a wholesome corrective to the prevailing Atticism. Other useful interpretations and surveys were given by Davidson (684), Wilkins (763), Dobson (687), and Moore (726, 727). Bryant (674) based an interpretation of Athenian boyhood and youth upon Aristophanes.

### **Special Topics in Roman Education**

A well-documented study of Roman rhetorical education was by Gwynn (702), who also supplied an extensive bibliography. Odgers (732, 733) in-



vestigated Quintilian's use of literature and his dependence upon previous rhetoricians. Sochatoff (748) studied the rhetorical theories of Seneca and Baldwin's *Ancient Rhetoric* (661) dealt with both Quintilian and Seneca, as well as with ancient rhetorical instruction in general.

Pharr (737) made a study of legal education at Rome and provided a bibliography. Barbagallo (662) contributed to the same subject as well as to rhetorical and philosophical education in the empire. Brock (673) and Bouchier (671) treated the literature and education of Roman Africa. Abelson's *Seven Liberal Arts* (659) touched upon the origins of rhetorical studies. It should be kept in mind that legal and rhetorical studies were closely connected in antiquity.

The broader treatments of Roman education included those of Wilkins (763), Cole (679), and Jullien (712). Friedlander (695) gave an account of life and manners in the early empire. Becker's *Gallus* (663), which has an excursus on education, and the companion volume, *Charikles*, dealt, respectively, with Roman and Greek life and education. Dill (685) provided a well-informed and very readable study of Roman life in the later empire. Several titles for which we have not had space in this résumé have been silently entered in the accompanying bibliography.

## CHAPTER XIII

### Comparative Colonial Education<sup>1</sup>

W. BRYANT MUMFORD and JOHN WILLIAMSON

IN RECENT YEARS much attention has been devoted by the great colonial powers to the education of the indigenous peoples of their dependencies. The obvious purpose of their educational systems is to enable these peoples to share in the experiences and achievements of western civilization, but the methods vary, and each power may have differing subsidiary aims.

#### British Policy

British policy may be summarized as follows: (a) cooperation in the dependencies between government and voluntary educational agencies—missions, Moslem native authorities, and private groups—by the formation of local advisory committees, and by generous grants-in-aid encouraging nongovernment bodies to develop their schools side by side with those of government; (b) insistence upon education having a definitely religious background, whether Christian or non-Christian; (c) conservation through school activities of the best elements in native life; (d) educational programs directed toward the advancement of the peoples as a whole; (e) provision of technical and vocational training according to local needs; (f) education for girls; and (g) development of higher education for the training of native leaders.

With regard to cooperation between government and private agencies and the religious basis of education, it should be noted that the greater part of educational work in nearly all British dependencies is done by missionary societies. This is partly because of historical reasons; only comparatively recently has the government regarded education as one of its proper functions, partly for reasons of economy and partly because it is traditional for the government to use existing agencies so far as it is possible to do so. Unfortunately, for a variety of reasons, the amount of financial assistance which the government actually gives to missions is, at the present moment, still inadequate. Thus, for example, the recent East African Commission advised the government to take an increasing share in the responsibility for education. In some territories the government schools were in existence before the development of the grant-in-aid system of mission schools and, in addition, it is sometimes necessary to provide governmental schools in Moslem and other areas where for religious reasons popular feeling would resent these activities being left in the hands of missions. In addition to aiding missionary societies the government also makes grants to Mohammedan and other religious bodies, to minority groups such as Indians resident in Africa or Malaya, and to private school organizations by the people themselves.

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 440.

As regards the conservation through school activities of the best elements in native life, it has been difficult up to the present to put this principle into practice. An experiment was made, however, at Malangali in Tanganyika Territory of developing a school whose organization was based upon indigenous education as it existed prior to the arrival of the European in Africa, and in the field of higher education it is proposed to open an Institute of West African Culture as part of the research activities of Achimota College in the Gold Coast.

With reference to the needs of the peoples as a whole, it should be borne in mind that mass education in the dependencies is developing very slowly. In Africa schools are available only for about 10 percent of the child pupils. Missions cannot afford a wide expansion of their educational programs and the state will have to assume greater and greater responsibility.

So far as it is the function of education to "provide the native with the proper equipment for dealing with his own environment" and to "prepare him for the changes to which that environment will, in increasing measure, be subject" it is thought that a purely academic curriculum is not enough and that provision must be made for vocational education. This is done by giving an agricultural bias to rural primary schools, by introducing training in skilled trades in centers for higher primary education, and by offering professional courses on the university level.

Girls' education has not advanced as rapidly as that for boys, partly because schooling is often regarded as training for earning a better living and women do not feel that necessity. Living conditions, however, will not be raised until the women in the dependencies are given a form of education which will fit them to be wives to their educated husbands. Parents are unwilling that their daughters should go to school, and educated wives are sometimes unacceptable to native males who do not regard women as equals. Domestic courses and training in nursing and midwifery seem to afford most scope for development at present, but where girls follow courses similar to those arranged for boys they are found to be equally alert.

As has been found in other parts of the world, there is a tendency in British dependencies for school curriculums to be governed by the requirements of examinations for entry to higher schools. This means, in effect, that for those pupils who pass through the schools at one level the educational courses are incomplete and do not fit them immediately to take a place in the economic world. This difficulty, however, is receiving the closest attention of the authorities.

Another problem which is being faced throughout the British dependencies is the question of the medium of instruction in the schools. Most natives come to school with the object of learning a European language, as they look upon their education as a preparation for commercial and government posts. It must be remembered, however, that it takes many years to attain a reasonable efficiency in a European language, and in addition there is a considerable loss in the understanding of subjectmatter unless it is taught

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### Chinese Education in the Twentieth Century

Turning now to the modern period, which some writers date from 1842, and others later, several apparently responsible writers were busy around the years 1910 to 1913 when the fall of the Manchu dynasty was coming and the Republic was being established. Bland (601) in 1912 told that immediate story with much sympathy for the Manchus whom he considered relatively successful in their governing of China, and no little adverse criticism of "Young China" and what he termed its chauvinism. Brown (602) wrote at the same time but in a more detached way. He reviewed the impact of modern science and manufacture, and of economic, social, and political forces on China, as well as the influence of changing international relations, and credited them with bringing about the revolution. His chapter on the intellectual awakening and education is especially good. In the series of discussions at the second decennial celebration of Clark University, Blakeslee (600) included five on various phases of Chinese education, including the history of missionary education in China. Kuo (615), previously mentioned, was among the earlier of the strong students who came to the United States from China to do graduate work in education. The best contribution in his volume was for the period from 1842 to about 1914. Burton (603) was also of this time, 1911. She wrote that "of all the remarkable changes which have taken place in China within the last decade,

none is more significant than the change of attitude toward the education of women." This is a statement not easily challenged, and told interestingly and well the changes that came from 1842 to the date of writing. The work of Gascoyne-Cecil (611) impresses one as having been rather futile in that both he and the group he represented were trailing far behind the realities and necessities of the situation when he was sent to China about 1910 to study missionary education and report on the advisability of founding a western university in China.

### **Influence of the Nationalist Movement**

Next come a few writers in the 1920's when the nationalist movement was taking stronger shape and form and the teachings of Sun Yat Sen were being more and more adopted by the Chinese. Monroe's first brief product (621) was like that of Kuno (614), written for the very limited purpose of aiding university authorities in the United States to form opinions on the relative strength of universities in China. His later work (620) is a sympathetic account of the life and efforts of Dr. Sun and of the nationalist movement. It includes their influences on education. Tao's factual statement (627) made in 1924 is peculiarly valuable for comparative purposes if read in connection with Chuang (605) who in 1936 discussed the dozen eventful years since 1924. The report of the committee (604) which studied Christian higher education in China around 1921 and 1922 was the first of a series that later included India and Japan. Its historical sketch was brief, its survey of the conditions then existing was good. Cressy (607) in 1925 and 1926 carried the work further in the manner of education surveys in the United States. Goodnow (612) did peculiarly well in discussing the difficulties of the Chinese language and their effects on education. Purcell (623) taking advantage of his knowledge of the language dealt at length with the same problem, but his suggested solution, the adoption of basic English, is so questionable that one doubts the validity of much of his writing.

In the early 1930's came that remarkable attempt of the League of Nations (616), on invitation from China, to evaluate the Chinese scheme of education and point the way to future development. Its Mission of Educational Experts, one from each of four European countries, saw the situation through European eyes—it could not do otherwise—and was adversely critical of some important and powerful influences on education in China that it may not have understood. Djung (608) wrote while a student in the United States and showed the influences surrounding him by beginning with the statement that "the history of mankind is chiefly the history of his progress toward democracy." He traced painstakingly the changes in Chinese education from 1900 to 1933. Johnstone (613) recorded the influence of the *San Min Chu-i* as he saw it. Liu (618) wrote of the relation of the government to religious education in 1932 when that question was much in the foreground in a number of countries.



Nationalism in education was the thesis of Peake (622) who dealt with modern China, from 1860 on, and attempted to assess the extent to which the Chinese were using education to inculcate the political theories connected with the revolution and the nationalist movement. He decided that "not only has a fair treatment of the world at large, its history and its contributions been consciously eliminated in favor of the nationalistic emphasis, but also material designed to fit the student to his more vital life in the family and the community has been reduced to a minimum, so that the conception of the nation as the supreme form of social grouping may be indoctrinated and all vital problems be seen as national ones which the state alone can solve through its political machinery" (622: 155). Perhaps he overstated the situation. Tsang (628) wrote a year later on about the same subject and definitely refuted much of the contention quoted above. Among other pertinent comments, he observed that "culture is for life, not life for culture. Happily China seems to be quite sensitive, on a whole, to the pulse of modern life, with little of the slavish lingering over what is sometimes called one's national spiritual heritage" (628: 227).

Stuart (626) in 1933 handled the work of the Christian missions in China. Forster (609) and Smith (624) treated of very special phases of education in China. The former, an Englishman, and professor of education at the University of Hong Kong, described the education provided in that English concession for both Chinese and foreigners. The latter wrote, after the manner of an educationist trained in the United States, on elementary education in a definite locality. Neither was then attempting to give a view of all China.

### **Just before the Present War**

We have now to consider the situation as it was about 1936 or shortly before the present Japanese-Chinese war began. Forster (610) again wrote this time about all China, and expressed the view that China is inclined to re-examine her own gods once more in the belief that after all they are not quite so lacking in grace as first contacts with the West seemed to suggest. In the light of later events his discussion of the Japanese threat is exceedingly interesting. Wang (629, 630) wrote from the vantage point of one in a leading official position in education in China. These were factual statements and entitled to the presumption that they are correct. Under the influence of the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations, Chyne (606) compiled in 1936 his handbook to tell other nations of the origin, history, membership, activities, etc., of the cultural organizations in China. In the past year or year and a half, many of them have undoubtedly ceased to function and education in China must have changed greatly. But that story must come later. Meanwhile, it is worth noting that in all the histories of wars and in all the inquiries into their various effects on nations, no good account seems ever to have been written as to the exact effects of war on education.

### C. Japan

Recorded history of education in Japan dates to the century preceding the dawn of the Christian era and is accordingly much briefer than the history of education in either India or China. Most writers, both Japanese and others, divide it into two periods: pre-Meiji, to 1868 when the Tokugawa Shogunate fell and Japan began to emerge from feudalism; and Meiji, or the period of the restoration, from 1868 to the present. It is more easily told and less complicated than that of either India or China, for Japan, in area and population, is a smaller nation, homogeneous, centralized in government, mainly unilingual, and for the most part united in religious belief.

#### Education in the Pre-Meiji Era

The history for the pre-Meiji era is largely the story of the influence of Chinese and Korean learning with the concomitants of Buddhism and Confucianism, though in the latter part of the era dealings with the Portuguese and the Dutch and the introduction of Christianity were important. This history has been sketched briefly in several publications as an introduction to later events, for the purpose of producing contrasts or providing a background. The outline history of the Japanese Department of Education (641), Kikuchi (645), and Sharp (651) have accounts of this type. Lombard (647) in 1913 felt that it was in itself worthy of careful study. Being at that time a professor in Doshisha University and a lecturer in the Imperial University at Kyoto, he must have had, for an Occidental, an unusual knowledge of the Japanese language and historical documents. He treated of the first intellectual awakening; and of government education from 662 to 1603; and from 1603 when the Tokugawa Shogunate came into power to its overthrow in 1868.

Keenleyside and Thomas (643) were more emphatic about the importance of that earlier era on the ground that "the student who believes that it is enough to know Japan from the time of the Restoration in 1868 can never understand the country, and least of all her modern system of education and its many ramifications throughout her national life" (643: 3). They saw in the history of Japan to 1868, periods when the Japanese people were adopting as much as possible from other countries, followed by times of self-isolation and assimilation. They did exceptionally well in paralleling those alternating periods with the larger trends of events in other countries.

#### Education in the Meiji Era

The department of education of Japan has documented its educational system well since about 1872. There are the regular annual reports (639) issued in English, presumably in abridged form, and generally from six to eight years later than the year reported. They should be available since

1873. In the earlier years they included considerable textual discussion of events; more recently they have been mainly undigested statistics. Moreover, the department has from time to time published surveys of education (638, 640, 642). Similar surveys appeared in 1926, 1930, and 1935. Further, it has regularly presented good accounts of the nation's schools at such international gatherings as the Philadelphia International Exhibition (641), the Universal Exposition of Paris, 1878, International Health and Education Exhibition at London, 1884, International Industrial and Cotton Exhibition at New Orleans, 1885, World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago, 1893, Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis, 1904, and the Panama Pacific International Exposition at San Francisco, 1915.

Among the unofficial writings in English by Japanese, those of Kikuchi (645) are among the most important. He had been minister of education in Japan and president of the Imperial University of Kyoto. In a series of lectures he was telling educators in England what the educational situation was in Japan in 1908 and could speak with authority and from first-hand knowledge. The brief sketches by Sawayanagi (650) and Hita (637) afford comparisons between 1925 and 1936. The other accounts in this class dealt with special phases of Japanese education. Abe (631) presented the colonial policies in education. Ashida (632) discussed that situation which is so trying in many countries, the relation of the state to religious education. Hayashi (636) wrote of the expansion of secondary education. Teachers associations in Japan was Shinohara's topic (652), and that most significant of questions, the philosophy underlying the system of education was taken up by Yoshida (656).

What Japan was trying to do in education in the first years of the Meiji era is well expressed by Mori (648) who asked the opinions of prominent men in the United States. The replies of Peter Cooper, Mark Hopkins, and others must have influenced greatly the trend of Japanese education in those early days. That Japan should have employed a citizen of the United States to be superintendent of schools and colleges seems unthinkable in these times of intense nationalism, but such was the case, and the man so employed, David Murray, wrote a report to the vice-minister of education in Japan (654). Sharp (651) was an English educator working in India. He went to Japan to see if the Japanese scheme of education at that time, 1906, offered anything of value to education in India. He decided that it did not because of the great differences between the two countries, but his work is of much historical value as a clear picture of conditions then prevailing in Japan.

### **Missionary Influence**

Lombard (647), as a part of his study, told of the beginnings of Christian education in Japan in the latter part of the sixteenth century and ascribed the suppression of Christianity and foreign intercourse in the

early part of the seventeenth century to mutual distrust among the religious orders, and the evident political intrigue of high officials with Philip III of Spain and Portugal. However that may be, Japan was closed to foreign influence from about 1612 to 1868. Then Christian missionaries began to work in the country and a Commission on Christian Education (634) attempted in 1932 to assess their accomplishments. Avison (633) and Reischauer (649) wrote also from the missionary point of view. De Forest (635) fixed 1869 as the date of the first baptism of Japanese women as Protestant Christians and recounted with unusual charm the influence of Christianity on Japanese women. Underwood (653), while a mission worker, wrote more of the general school system in telling of education in Korea. His work may be classed among those dealing with colonial policies as well as missionary effort. The writing of Avison (633) also dealt only with Korea. Lewis (646) wrote in that frame of mind of 1903 that conceived it the duty of the West to direct the East and bring it to Western ways of thinking.

Keesing's compilation (644) provided a Pacific-basin background for Japanese education.

## CHAPTER XII

### Education in the Ancient World<sup>1</sup>

H. G. GOOD

ANCIENT HISTORY, which still ends in 500 A.D., no longer begins with Homer but at an indeterminate point some three thousand years earlier. Records, while still valuable, are no longer necessary for history. The concept of prehistory has faded, but except for the important change in perspective the history of education has been affected very little. The conscious molding of man in harmony with an ideal, we are still told, is a Greek and not an Oriental concept. Only time can tell whether scholars will continue in this conviction.

#### Education of the Citizen in Greece

The most important recent work on Greek education, by Jaeger (710), took the position indicated above. Only the first volume has been published; and this has been translated by Highet (711). Jaeger's sources were the literature, philosophy, and politics of Greece. A cosmos expressing an ideal was the central Hellenic notion and this guided Greek education. The Sophists first developed a conscious method but they led a movement to educate leaders rather than citizens. Jaeger accepted Plato's portrait of the Sophists rather than Grote's account (701). From another standpoint Jaeger dealt with the problem whether on Greek principles humanism can be harmonized with naturalism on the one side and supernaturalism on the other.

Two of Nettleship's works (729, 730) are still among the most valuable interpretations of Plato and have recently been reprinted although one of them was published in 1880. Fite (692) wrote a destructive criticism of Plato which in spite of its obvious lack of sympathy with the subject is not without value. Crossman (680) put the *Republic* into modern paraphrase and criticized it from the standpoint of a revolutionary Christian democrat. On Aristotle, Burnet (675) and Davidson (683, 684) are useful and on the educational writings which go under the name of Plutarch, Westaway (759). Hodgson (708) dealt with early Christian education. Upon the influence of Greek ideas on the Christian tradition Hatch (705) was enlightening. Also on the influence of Greece and Rome upon the West the histories of scholarship by Peck (735) and Sandys (743) were important contributions. Several of the most general reference works will be indicated here. They are such as the following: the *Cambridge Ancient History*, the Pauly-Wissowa *Real-Encyclopedia*, the Daremberg-Saglio *Dictionnaire des Antiquités* (682), and Harper's *Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquity*.

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 436.



### Physical Education and the Ephebia

Two of the three volumes by Grasberger (700) on ancient education dealt with physical education: the first with the elementary training and the third with the advanced physical and military education of both the Greeks and the Romans. Grasberger's second volume treated of intellectual education.

The most thorough treatments in English of Greek athletics and physical education were written by Gardiner (696, 697). Both of his works were expert and critical presentations of the abundant materials which are found both in the literature and in remains and inscriptions, by a classical scholar who had wide experience in athletics. A new translation of Philostratos was provided by Woody (764). Manning (720) wrote on professionalism in Greece and Ghinopoulo (698) combed the ancient literatures for evidences of child care and the treatment of children's diseases. Related to this last named work is a little book by Klein (715) who presented descriptions and pictures of museum objects which illustrate child-life in ancient times. Attempts to trace the sources of Greek athletics in the Minoan-Mycenaean civilization have been made by Burrage (676), Schütze (747), Hyde (709), and Ridington (739) and with considerable success considering the scarcity of the material. Evans (690), in a presidential address, showed that the supposed miracle of the Hellenic mind and its sudden bloom are coming to seem less extraordinary as we learn more about its historical antecedents.

*Ephebic Institution*—A detailed history of the ephebic institution was given by Grasberger (700), named above, and by Girard (699), Dumont (689), and others. Dumont and also Dittenberger (686) presented the most important inscriptions. But the whole subject was reopened by the recovery of Aristotle's Constitution of Athens. Brenot (672), Lofberg (717), and Forbes (693) generally supported the conclusion which Wilamowitz (761) first proposed, namely, that the ephebic institution at Athens did not antedate 335 B.C. Lofberg was one of those who were not entirely convinced. The Athenian constitution may be consulted in Ross (741).

*The Iuventus in Roman education*—A striking phenomenon in the social history of the Roman Empire is the rise of the institution of the *iuvenes*, an aristocratic athletic and military organization of youths preparing for state service. Comparison with the Greek ephebia is inevitable. Mohler (725) has most fully discussed the sources and Carrington (678) presented materials on the remains of the *Iuventus* of Pompeii. For the present the date of the origin of the Roman *Iuventus* is placed in the reign of Augustus who is credited with its institution.

### Origin of Writing among the Greeks

Another question of date is that of the art of writing among the Greeks and of the acquisition of the original of the present Greek alphabet. Carpenter (677) proposed the seventh century for the latter date but his

view was not accepted and a lively debate developed. Ullman (753, 754, 755), who took the most radical counter-position and suggested 2000 B.C. as a possible date for the introduction of writing into Greece, derived some support from McCown (718). Harland (704) gave evidence which pointed to about 1200 B.C. for the first Greek script, Stillwell (749) showed that writing was well developed in the eighth century while Tod (752) gave a useful summary of the controversy. Newberry (731) even argued that the Greek alphabet may have been derived from the Sumerians. Kenyon (713) supported an early date; and he showed further that the codex form of the book developed much earlier than had been known. Obviously the introduction of writing and the invention of the codex have important bearings upon the history of education.

### **Tablets and Exercises from Greek Schools**

Numerous tablets, ostraca or pottery scraps, and papyri containing school exercises have been found, and from time to time published. Crusius (681) more than thirty years ago published the contents of some ostraca. J. G. Milne (724) gave out a larger series from the second century before Christ. These revealed customs and exercises which Quintilian noticed and approved three centuries later. Kenyon (714) reproduced two third-century tablets similar in form and exercises to the horn-book but containing also an extensive series of grammatical forms. Ziebarth (765, 766) and Beudel (664) gave still more extensive examples and accounts of similar materials.

Related to the school boys' forms and syllabaries was Greek shorthand in that it was based upon a syllabic scheme. The evidence was presented by H. Milne (723). Then as now shorthand writers were able to read their notes freely only when they were able to recall the context pretty clearly.

### **Surveys and General Topics**

An admirable description of Greek education, chiefly of elementary education and of the period 600-300 B.C., was prepared by Freeman (694). On physical education his work was defective because he used sources which were out of date when he wrote; and he did not live to complete his survey of Greek theory. But he treated Spartan education with full detail and with a sympathy which forms a wholesome corrective to the prevailing Atticism. Other useful interpretations and surveys were given by Davidson (684), Wilkins (763), Dobson (687), and Moore (726, 727). Bryant (674) based an interpretation of Athenian boyhood and youth upon Aristophanes.

### **Special Topics in Roman Education**

A well-documented study of Roman rhetorical education was by Gwynn (702), who also supplied an extensive bibliography. Odgers (732, 733) in-

vestigated Quintilian's use of literature and his dependence upon previous rhetoricians. Sochatoff (748) studied the rhetorical theories of Seneca and Baldwin's *Ancient Rhetoric* (661) dealt with both Quintilian and Seneca, as well as with ancient rhetorical instruction in general.

Pharr (737) made a study of legal education at Rome and provided a bibliography. Barbagallo (662) contributed to the same subject as well as to rhetorical and philosophical education in the empire. Brock (673) and Bouchier (671) treated the literature and education of Roman Africa. Abelson's *Seven Liberal Arts* (659) touched upon the origins of rhetorical studies. It should be kept in mind that legal and rhetorical studies were closely connected in antiquity.

The broader treatments of Roman education included those of Wilkins (763), Cole (679), and Jullien (712). Friedlander (695) gave an account of life and manners in the early empire. Becker's *Gallus* (663), which has an excursus on education, and the companion volume, *Charikles*, dealt, respectively, with Roman and Greek life and education. Dill (685) provided a well-informed and very readable study of Roman life in the later empire. Several titles for which we have not had space in this résumé have been silently entered in the accompanying bibliography.

## CHAPTER XIII

### Comparative Colonial Education<sup>1</sup>

W. BRYANT MUMFORD and JOHN WILLIAMSON

**I**N RECENT YEARS much attention has been devoted by the great colonial powers to the education of the indigenous peoples of their dependencies. The obvious purpose of their educational systems is to enable these peoples to share in the experiences and achievements of western civilization, but the methods vary, and each power may have differing subsidiary aims.

#### British Policy

British policy may be summarized as follows: (a) cooperation in the dependencies between government and voluntary educational agencies—missions, Moslem native authorities, and private groups—by the formation of local advisory committees, and by generous grants-in-aid encouraging nongovernment bodies to develop their schools side by side with those of government; (b) insistence upon education having a definitely religious background, whether Christian or non-Christian; (c) conservation through school activities of the best elements in native life; (d) educational programs directed toward the advancement of the peoples as a whole; (e) provision of technical and vocational training according to local needs; (f) education for girls; and (g) development of higher education for the training of native leaders.

With regard to cooperation between government and private agencies and the religious basis of education, it should be noted that the greater part of educational work in nearly all British dependencies is done by missionary societies. This is partly because of historical reasons; only comparatively recently has the government regarded education as one of its proper functions, partly for reasons of economy and partly because it is traditional for the government to use existing agencies so far as it is possible to do so. Unfortunately, for a variety of reasons, the amount of financial assistance which the government actually gives to missions is, at the present moment, still inadequate. Thus, for example, the recent East African Commission advised the government to take an increasing share in the responsibility for education. In some territories the government schools were in existence before the development of the grant-in-aid system of mission schools and, in addition, it is sometimes necessary to provide governmental schools in Moslem and other areas where for religious reasons popular feeling would resent these activities being left in the hands of missions. In addition to aiding missionary societies the government also makes grants to Mohammedan and other religious bodies, to minority groups such as Indians resident in Africa or Malaya, and to private school organizations by the people themselves.

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 440.

As regards the conservation through school activities of the best elements in native life, it has been difficult up to the present to put this principle into practice. An experiment was made, however, at Malangali in Tanganyika Territory of developing a school whose organization was based upon indigenous education as it existed prior to the arrival of the European in Africa, and in the field of higher education it is proposed to open an Institute of West African Culture as part of the research activities of Achimota College in the Gold Coast.

With reference to the needs of the peoples as a whole, it should be borne in mind that mass education in the dependencies is developing very slowly. In Africa schools are available only for about 10 percent of the child pupils. Missions cannot afford a wide expansion of their educational programs and the state will have to assume greater and greater responsibility.

So far as it is the function of education to "provide the native with the proper equipment for dealing with his own environment" and to "prepare him for the changes to which that environment will, in increasing measure, be subject" it is thought that a purely academic curriculum is not enough and that provision must be made for vocational education. This is done by giving an agricultural bias to rural primary schools, by introducing training in skilled trades in centers for higher primary education, and by offering professional courses on the university level.

Girls' education has not advanced as rapidly as that for boys, partly because schooling is often regarded as training for earning a better living and women do not feel that necessity. Living conditions, however, will not be raised until the women in the dependencies are given a form of education which will fit them to be wives to their educated husbands. Parents are unwilling that their daughters should go to school, and educated wives are sometimes unacceptable to native males who do not regard women as equals. Domestic courses and training in nursing and midwifery seem to afford most scope for development at present, but where girls follow courses similar to those arranged for boys they are found to be equally alert.

As has been found in other parts of the world, there is a tendency in British dependencies for school curriculums to be governed by the requirements of examinations for entry to higher schools. This means, in effect, that for those pupils who pass through the schools at one level the educational courses are incomplete and do not fit them immediately to take a place in the economic world. This difficulty, however, is receiving the closest attention of the authorities.

Another problem which is being faced throughout the British dependencies is the question of the medium of instruction in the schools. Most natives come to school with the object of learning a European language, as they look upon their education as a preparation for commercial and government posts. It must be remembered, however, that it takes many years to attain a reasonable efficiency in a European language, and in addition there is a considerable loss in the understanding of subjectmatter unless it is taught



in the mother tongue of the pupils. To complicate matters, many natives view with strong suspicion any attempt to limit their education to vernacular instruction and insist on studying English so as to have access to all they believe that the West can teach them.

The general scheme of education being introduced by the British government in her dependencies can best be stated in the words of the Memorandum on the Education of African Communities, published in 1935: "The first task of education is to raise the standard alike of character and efficiency of the bulk of the people but provision must also be made for the training of those who are required to fill posts in the administrative and technical services as well as those who, as chiefs, will occupy positions of exceptional trust and responsibility. As resources permit, the door of advancement, through higher education, must be increasingly opened for those who, by character, ability, and temperament, show themselves fitted to profit by such education." Thus we find such movements as the development of a university in Singapore, Malaya, in the foundation of university classes at Fourah Bay, in Sierra Leone, at Yaba, in Nigeria, and at Achimota College in the Gold Coast, West Africa, and Makerere in East Africa.

### The French Colonies

The French system of education in Africa differs widely from that of Great Britain, in that its political function is recognized, and its aim is assimilation. Its principles are laid down by the colonial ministry in collaboration with the Ministry of Education.

... Education is the very foundation of colonial policy, and that the value assignable to our overseas possessions is to be measured first of all by the value of the individual in virtue of the instruction which he receives. ... Education has as its first effect a large increase in the value of colonial industrial output through multiplying the intellectual abilities and capacities among the masses of colonial workers ... as skilled mechanics, foremen, inspectors, clerks or headclerks, will supplement the numerical insufficiency of Europeans and satisfy the growing demands of agricultural, industrial, and commercial colonization enterprises ... should also train native officials of various categories ... train native noncommissioned officers ... at this moment when the generous and wise application of a policy of cooperation is causing us to give native representatives increasingly easy access to consultative assemblies ... education should develop in them faculties and capacities necessary for useful collaboration with us. ... There is urgent need for developing, without further delay, all the educational institutions which should render our subjects and native wards ... more capable of playing their part in French civilization and human progress (768:272-76).

The principles of the French Republic are reflected in parallel systems of schools, one identical with the curriculum followed in France and the other training for life in Africa. The classification is not, however, one of race or color but depends on the ability of the pupil to profit by one or the other system. The African and French children study together and compete on equal terms. In French West Africa the state is primarily

responsible for education. Few mission schools receive subsidies and education is entirely secular and is free at all stages.

The French language is in universal use, and secondary and vocational training is limited to the demand for its products. In the lowest grade of schools most of the time is employed in learning French, and the teaching in the elementary schools is devoted mainly to the improvement of local conditions. The primary schools, the highest of these three grades of popular schools, have a high standard of efficiency and combine literary subjects with agriculture and carpentry. As in British East Africa, most of these have European headmasters. Selected pupils go on to higher education and are employed in various government departments.

An interesting development is the arrangement of courses in agriculture and hygiene for adults. These are in the vernacular and are well attended.

Girls' education is not so advanced as boys' education, and indeed in both the French and the Belgian colonies this fact is even more noticeable than in the British dependencies.

French educational principles are the same for all its colonies but in French Congo and French Cameroons development lags considerably behind that of French West Africa.

The attitude of France to her dependencies and that which colors her native schools is that the dependencies are not separate countries, each to be considered by itself, but rather that they are all parts of one unified group, the French Empire. The offices in Paris which administer the colonies do not have a separate office for each dependency, as do the British in London for their colonies, for this would tend to divide the colonies from France. "Both France and America . . . have introduced into their dependencies educational institutions identical with those of the homeland, and both, though in many respects France more than America, attempt to give cultural, political, and even social equality to all subjects as they prove their fitness" (779:34).

It is understood by French administrators that between the native of Africa living in customary conditions and the fully assimilated French citizen there is no intermediate position, and the educational policy of the colonies concentrates on the formation of such a group.

### **Belgian Congo**

The Belgian government has delegated most of its educational work to the missions, and the national or Roman Catholic missions are assisted by the state. All education is free and inspection of schools is largely performed by the missionaries.

The aim of the village schools, which are staffed by Africans, is to spread "moral discipline, ideas of hygiene, the ferment of progress, respect, and sympathy for" Belgian colonial enterprise. The middle schools, located chiefly in towns, have a three-year course, and their curriculum includes general and vocational education.

Some of the mines and commercial companies have established schools for the children of their native workers and some have technical schools for training artisans and skilled labor.

The whole policy of the Belgian administration is thus different from that of any other European power in Africa. Its aim is gradually to replace European skilled labor by African and neither seeks to "adapt education to the needs of the people" as in the British possessions nor to assimilate the educated population as in the French nor yet to establish a color bar as in the Union of South Africa. Mining and railways have until now loomed large in Belgian Congo enterprises, and Africans have shown themselves fully capable of acquiring the necessary technical skill to enable them to take part in these developments. Perhaps when the country has passed the stage of initial expansion of its industrial and agricultural schemes, a more literary type of education may be introduced to a system that at present appears to be more technical than general.

### **The Dutch in Java**

Although the area of Java is relatively small, there is a vast population with a density of 800 persons to the square mile. The Javanese have a more highly cultured organization than that of the African subjects of the British and French, but the Dutch solution of the problem of inter-racial relations in education is of interest when compared to the methods of other powers.

The government of the country does not differ widely from that of other dependencies, though it may be that the *Dessa*, or village commune, has more power to express the will of the people. It is where the European authority comes in contact with the native authority that the chief difference is seen, for instead of superimposing European government upon native government as in British colonies, or substituting European forms as do the French, the Dutch in Java allows the two systems to exist freely side by side.

The village elementary vernacular schools are supported entirely by the government, and provide a five-year course. The *Dessa* schools, for which the government and the village commune are jointly responsible, provide a three-year course, and at special centers two years are added to bring pupils into line with the elementary schools.

The Dutch have made a great effort to secure the benefits of education for their subjects and actually support 2000 village schools and maintain 16,000 *Dessa* schools, all of which are efficient and adequately supervised.

On leaving these schools, pupils may go to boarding schools where the principles of peasant farming are taught, where they are trained free, and where they live on the produce of the land. Trades are taught in two-year vernacular courses in towns and in a few villages. Teachers are trained for the higher standards of village schools in normal schools and there are

facilities for agricultural training. Dessa school teachers are usually trained on the pupil-teacher system.

The primary schools are in three divisions—one for children of Dutch parents, for children of mixed race, and for children of native homes where Dutch is the language in habitual use; one for Chinese children; and one for native children whose language is not Dutch. In all schools, however, Dutch is used in the higher standards and no racial distinction is made in secondary schools. College and university education, technical, veterinary, and agricultural training schools all maintain high standards and are accessible to members of any race.

A consideration of the two types of education, European language and vernacular, illustrates the dualism of the Dutch policy, the recognition of two separate worlds in their dependencies and the distinctions made are those of language and not those of race. The practical result of this is to prepare people to live in the society to which they will belong.

## CHAPTER XIV

### Comparative School Finance<sup>1</sup>

FLETCHER HARPER SWIFT

STUDENTS OF THE HISTORY of American education are familiar with the significant changes in curriculums, methods, discipline, and teacher training brought about by the dissemination of such reports on European education as those of John Griscom, 1819, Victor Cousin, 1831, C. E. Stowe, 1833, and Horace Mann, 1843. Had our educational leaders and statesmen been as ready to borrow applicable European policies of financing education as they have been to appropriate the products of European educational philosophy, psychology, and method, many of the existing evils resulting from unsound policies of school finance might have been avoided, or at least remedied long ago.

Year after year, thousands of schools in the United States are closed; tens of thousands of teachers are unemployed; hundreds of thousands of children are without schools. In not one of the countries studied by Swift (822) was any semblance of such conditions found. Situations such as those which prevailed in North Little Rock, Arkansas, in 1920, when not one public school was maintained as a free school during the entire year and in Chicago in 1932, when teachers received only ten weeks' pay in approximately eleven months have no parallel in any city in England, France, or Germany.

Shall our national government come to the rescue of the thousands of schools annually closed for lack of funds? Shall the state aid church schools? Shall state or even national teachers' salary scales be established? Shall buildings be financed on the pay-as-you-go policy? Shall teachers share in a liberal state or national pension system with provisions for widows and children of deceased teachers? These are but a few of the many questions, answers to which may well be found or at least in part suggested by researches in comparative school finance, a term which must be defined without further delay.

Comparative school finance is obviously merely one aspect of the larger field of comparative education. The term "comparative" would seem to imply studies which not only describe but compare the organization and policies of different countries and states. A survey of the publications listed by Abel (784), Kandel (805), and Turosienski (831) in their bibliographies of comparative education will reveal that the majority of studies which have thus far appeared make little and often no attempt at comparisons. The terms "foreign school systems" and consequently "foreign school finance" would more accurately describe this body of literature. This is apparently the interpretation adopted by Kandel (805), and is

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 441.



the one employed in preparing the present chapter. Again following Kandel's procedure no references will be made to the thousands of monographs, surveys, bulletins, and magazine articles on school finance in the United States since these have been included in earlier numbers of the REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH and in other widely distributed bibliographies.

Comparative education is one of the most recent fields to be developed as a separate professional study. Even more recent are the beginnings of the study of foreign school finance. Of the hundreds of publications listed by Turossi (831) only five dealt specifically with education finance. A study of the bibliographies compiled by Abel and Kandel will reveal a similar situation. Almost the only comprehensive studies in foreign school finance which have thus far appeared are those of Corlett (789), Cheng (787), Cameron (786), Dion (791), Swift (822), and Woods (835). Aside from these, one in quest of information must depend chiefly upon surveys and reports in official and privately published yearbooks, upon magazine articles, occasional reports issued by ministries, state departments or official commissions, and brief statements in official publications, and in textbooks.

### Works Covering Two or More Countries

Hans (799) wrote the only textbook which gives an organized treatment of comparative school finance. A chapter contributed to *The Year Book of Education*, 1936, by the same author (798), outlined the major features and trends in educational finance in twenty-six countries. In 1931 a table showing for fifty-four countries (a) the total national budget, (b) the national educational budget and the percent which (b) is of (a) was published in the *Bulletin of the International Bureau of Education* (802). The effects of the worldwide economic depression upon the educational budgets and services of fifty-six foreign countries were shown in Abel's study (783) published in 1933. The following year a similar study covering thirty-five countries was published by the International Bureau of Education (785). Swift's five monographs (822) dealing with the financing of education of every level in France, Czechoslovakia, Austria, Germany, and England and Wales are the pioneer and most comprehensive researches of this type. Some of the most important conclusions of his researches are embodied in magazine articles and addresses (821, 823-829). Others are epitomized or at least suggested in the first two paragraphs of the present chapter.

Educational trusts in the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Union of South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand are surveyed in six chapters contributed by Cranage and Ikin (790) to *The Year Book of Education*, 1937. In five successive chapters of *The Year Book of Education*, 1938, Ikin (801) presented the law of educational endowments in Scotland, Wales, and Ireland.

Many ministries, state and national departments of education, issue occasional reports dealing with one or several aspects of financing education. It is impossible to list such publications here. Some of them are included in Turosienski's bibliography (831) and in the bibliographies attached to Swift's monographs. It is to be regretted that Turosienski did not include notable compilations of school laws such as those used by Swift in preparing his studies on England, France, and Germany and which are indispensable to students of any aspect of comparative education.

*The Year Book of Education* (833) from its inception in 1932 has published annually surveys of educational finance in the United Kingdom (793, 794, 818, 819, 820) and many valuable comparative studies on special subjects such as those of Cranage and Ikin (790), Hans (798, 800), Orange (813), Percy (814), and Stevens (817). Although the *Educational Year Book of the International Institute of Teachers College* (806) has directed its attention primarily to matters of organization, administration, methods, curriculums, and underlying and determining social and political philosophies, some chapters such as those on Germany by Lehman (809) contain much essential and valuable material regarding certain aspects of school finance.

The two volume work on *The Organization of Higher Instruction* (803) prepared under the direction of a committee of the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation describe the organization, administration, and fiscal policies of universities and other institutions of research and higher learning in nineteen countries. Fiscal policies, budgets, receipts, expenditures, and other important financial data were presented. Twelve of the nineteen chapters were written by officials attached to national ministries of education.

In addition to strictly educational works, there are a number of publications which depict the financial policies of two or more countries and are of inestimable value to the student of school finance. Of the many which might be named only three can be noted here. Grice's pioneer and monumental work (797) described the systems of grants-in-aid for elementary schools in England, France, Belgium, and Prussia. Chapters II, III, and V relate the history of England's grants-in-aid for various purposes including education. Tables in the appendixes contain much valuable information concerning education. The title of Newcomer's volume (811) succinctly expresses its general character. Chapter VIII recounts the history of English grants-in-aid before 1929. The professed aim of *Tax Systems of the World* (830) is to furnish "an instantaneousness of information" to overworked and superbusy statesmen, politicians, and professional men. To achieve this aim, tax systems of individual countries and comparative data for many countries are presented in charts. It is impossible to overstate the importance of this work. It is to be regretted that the tables are not numbered in serial order; also that the practice followed in the case of national taxes of the German Reich is not followed in a much larger number of tables.

## Studies Limited to One Country

### Austria

The only monograph on financing education in Austria is that by Swift (822) previously noted.

### Canada

A number of excellent reports and studies on financing education in Canada have been produced in recent years. The *Annual Survey of Education* issued by the Canadian Bureau of Statistics has included since 1934 a classified bibliography of Canadian Studies in Education. Here will be found not only published reports but unpublished documents including unpublished masters' and doctors' theses.

The studies of Cameron (786) and Woods (835) pictured fiscal policies and educational inequalities similar to those existing in our own commonwealths where the district system prevails, a system, according to Woods, borrowed by Canada directly from the United States. Woods reported hundreds of rural schools closed for lack of funds. Cameron's study, limited to elementary education, reported expenditures per pupil in city public schools varying from \$43.18 to \$85.69 and expenditures per teacher in rural schools ranging from \$403 to \$2057 (786: 152). Both authors showed familiarity with the technics and plans developed by Mort, Updegraff, and other United States authorities. Both recommended large local units of school administration and support, tax relief for general property, and increasing application of equalization principles in distributing provincial aid.

King's study (807) of British Columbia included "an historical study of school finance in the province, a development of general principles in relation to public education and financing thereof, a study of educational finance and organization in the English-speaking world, the general principles of taxation and the relevant statistical studies." It outlined a variety of methods for reducing taxation on real property and for administrative reorganization essential for educational efficiency, economy, and financial control.

### China

Ch'in's study (787) was characterized by painstaking and resourceful application of scientific technics acquired at Columbia University and Teachers College. In face of great difficulties, the author produced a carefully analyzed, challenging, and all-in-all remarkable study of China's educational program, school costs, needs, and ability to support education. Ninety-one tables, seven diagrams, and a map aid in clarifying the large assemblage of data.

### Czechoslovakia

As far as could be ascertained, Swift's monograph (822), already noted, is the only comprehensive study of financing education in Czechoslovakia.

### England and Wales

Swift's monograph (822) dealt with every level of education. Corlett's indispensable volume (789), though limited to elementary education, had the unique distinction of being the first monograph dealing with the financing of education in England and Wales. Two introductory chapters were followed by a series of chapters which presented in chronological order the history of grants-in-aid, the effects and defects of various legal provisions, and the controversies aroused thereby. It is to be regretted that the author failed to attach either titles or numbers to his numerous tables, and also appended no bibliography. Jennings' monograph (804) traced from 1750 to 1833 the evolution of the political and social philosophies which eventuated in the beginning of grants-in-aid for education. The influence of both French and English political and educational doctrines was described and interpreted.

An earlier paragraph under "General Works" has noted the annual surveys of education finance in the United Kingdom and many studies of special aspects of school finance included in *The Year Book of Education*. Specific mention should be made of Percy's survey (814) and of Hans' chapter on "Financial Policy of the State" (800), which dealt largely with grants-in-aid. Webb's book (834) on this subject covered all classes of grants. Chapter V described and evaluated the system of grants to local education authorities and pointed out glaring defects. First published in 1911, this monograph still remains an authoritative and basic work. Of the many publications issued by the Board of Education dealing with costs, budget estimates, grants-in-aid, and other financial matters, the only one which can be noted here is the selection of charts prepared for the Educational Exhibition at Oxford, 1935 (796). Charts 22-35 present graphs and tables showing trends in receipts and expenditures and in the division of the "school burden."

The report on salaries and grading of university teachers adopted by the Council of the Association of University Teachers (815) revealed the disastrous defects in present systems of payment and promotion and urged the adoption of a nationwide scheme. University teachers' salaries are shown to be definitely lower than those paid to civil service employees and notably lower than those of teachers in the best secondary schools. Tables showing existing average salaries and recommended scales are presented.

### France

An earlier paragraph has noted the unique contribution of Swift's study (822). Dion's descriptive and legalistic monograph (791) contained almost no statistical data. A historical introduction is followed by three chapters which summarized the legal provisions governing, in 1920, the establishment, organization, and support of universities and secondary and primary schools. A concluding chapter described certain tax exemption privileges enjoyed by institutions of public instruction. Soleil's compendium (816) of the duties and rights of elementary teachers contained three chapters especially pertinent to elementary-school finance, namely, Part V, Chapter I, Division of Costs; Part VI, Chapter VII, Salaries and Supplementary Allowances; and Chapter IX, Retirement.

### Germany

The only general study of financing education in Germany is that of Swift (822), already characterized in an earlier paragraph.

### India

Oak's unpublished thesis (812) is the only treatment of educational finance in India that the writer has been able to discover. "Salaries of Teachers" and "Income and Expenditure" were dealt with in Chapters XV and XVI, Volume 1 of Kini's report (808). The data presented were chiefly for the year 1926-27.

### Ireland

Reference has been made to Ikin's chapters (801) on the law of educational endowments in northern Ireland and the Irish Free State. A series of chapters entitled "Finance in Northern Ireland" was published in *The Year Book of Education*, 1932 to 1936, inclusive (793). The Report of the Committee on the Financial Relations between the State and Local Authorities (795) explained the financing of education.

### Scotland

Annual surveys of education expenditure in Scotland have appeared in *The Year Book of Education* from 1932 to date (794, 819). Other helpful reports in the same work are Ikin's account (801) of the law of educational endowments and an anonymous chapter (820) showing the trends in education expenditure during twelve years. The *Report of the Committee on Local Expenditure* (788) contained a chapter on local education costs and suggested methods for their reduction without, it is claimed, injury to educational services.

### South Africa

Ikin's survey (801) of educational trusts in the Union of South Africa has been noted. The *Report of the Committee of Enquiry into Subsidies*



to Universities, University Colleges and Technical Colleges (832) was made to determine the states' relation to these institutions and to discover the effect of the constitution of the councils of technical colleges upon the development of local responsibility. Malherbe's study (810) covered primarily the history of educational control as revealed in the changing relations of the state to education in the four provinces of the Union. The author traced the evolution of policies of financing education, especially that of the system of grants-in-aid introduced after the Cape had passed to England in 1806. A source analysis of the Cape's education receipts, 1791-1907, was presented in tabular form (810: 118-19). Growth in state expenditure for education, 1865-1923, was shown (810: 174-75). After pointing out the provincial financial and educational inequalities, the study concluded with a strong recommendation for a national system of education.

## CHAPTER XV

### Comparative Vocational Education and Guidance<sup>1</sup>

FRANKLIN J. KELLER

#### Vocational Education in Foreign Countries

The only comprehensive compilation of information on vocational education in all parts of the world has been that of the International Bureau of Vocational Education (Bureau International de l'Enseignement Technique, known usually as BIET). This has been printed in the voluminous reports (837) of the congresses held in Charleroi, 1925; Liège, 1930; Paris, 1931; Brussels, 1932; Barcelona, 1934; Rome, 1936; Berlin, 1938; and in the quarterly published by the Bureau (836). These contain accounts of the vocational education programs in many countries, usually supplied by the federal departments administering them. Several inquiries approach the problem in the spirit of evaluation. For instance, *Enquête sur l'Obligation de l'Apprentissage* (836: Juin 1938) surveys the apprenticeship laws in various countries, while *A Quel Ministère, dans les Divers Pays, l'Enseignement Technique est-il Rattaché?* (836: Septembre 1938) is an inquiry into governmental responsibility for vocational education. Abbott (837: 1936) presented an extensive report *Sur la Terminologie* in which he defined and gave the full connotation of various terms. The publications of the BIET are a mine of invaluable information, all in French; they are, however, somewhat difficult to explore because of the lack of an adequate index. BIET is now issuing, in sections, alphabetically by countries, a complete bibliography of the publications in its library. Thus far, Germany (Allemagne), Argentina, and Austria (listed separately) have been covered.

The International Labour Office (838, 839) has brought together authentic information in the general field of vocational education, and in the narrower field of agricultural education. In both of these publications detailed information is presented for each country. This is supplemented by generalizations as to "trends of ideas" and evaluations based upon a comparative study of results in the various countries. The 1928 *Educational Yearbook* (840) devoted half its space to "The Problem of Vocational Education," including a compilation of material on England, France, Germany, and the United States along with some critical evaluation. The 1938 yearbook dealt with rural education, including agricultural education. Again, for each of the fourteen countries, there is factual presentation along with some evaluation. *The Year Book of Education, 1939* (841) devoted a large section to general articles on vocational education and to specific treatment of five European countries, the British Commonwealth of Nations, and the United States.

#### Research on Vocational Education in the United States

It is comparatively recently that vocational educators in the United States have become conscious of the necessity for and the importance of

<sup>1</sup> Bibliography for this chapter begins on page 443.

research in their field. The American Vocational Association (843), with a membership of 22,000, has initiated a program at present based upon a follow-up of graduates of vocational schools, but with a much more comprehensive program in view. The experimental element does not appear. The results will probably be available by the time this article appears.

Ever since the earliest days of vocational education surveys have been an important preliminary and accompaniment of curriculum making. The survey made in Minneapolis (845) was followed by others in Indianapolis, Richmond (Ind.), and Richmond (Va.). A much later attempt, with personnel drawn from the teaching staff in the vocational schools rather than outside educational institutions, was that in New York City (846). All these surveys have stressed the importance of a study of industry and business as a means of throwing light upon the desirable content and method in vocational education, with particular emphasis upon accurate descriptions of industrial processes. Recently the United States Department of Labor (890) has carried on extensive and intensive research in this area, the results of which are valuable both for vocational education and vocational guidance. The vocational education division of the United States Office of Education has issued numerous studies of the descriptive type. The most comprehensive is the bibliography of studies in agricultural education (847).

The latest pronouncement upon vocational education is that of the Advisory Committee on Education appointed by the President (842). The Committee considers it "unfortunate that there have been few if any research studies to answer this important question," i. e., What type of education best prepares for a vocation? The general plan for conducting its own study was "to appoint specialists in each of the major areas of the whole field and to assign to them responsibility for the preparation of memorandums on their special topics." Whether these persons are really specialists and whether their opinions have not been misleading has given rise to much controversy, and only emphasizes the importance of the committee's own statement regarding the need for research studies. The cause of vocational education has been injured by the failure of the vocational educators to evaluate their own product.

### Research on Vocational Education in Other Countries

In the principal foreign countries general studies of vocational education problems have been made, as in Great Britain and the Dominions (848, 851, 852, 853, 854, 857), Germany (849, 850), Sweden (858), and India (855, 856). The work of Baumgarten (859) is an example of the more careful type of realistic and scientific research in the psychological phases of the vocations. Kühne's book (849) was and is the most comprehensive and authoritative study of vocational education in Germany. Südhof's small volume (850), appearing after three years of Nazi administration, described the schools with surprising restraint. The fact is that while the present regime proclaims "everything is new," the basically sound

features of German vocational education are survivals of older Germany. Descriptions of the systems in the various smaller countries are found spread over the pages of the *Bulletin Trimestriel* (836). The bulletin also contains a continuous bibliography of publications on vocational education.

### Guidance and Vocational Adjustment

During the years 1933-39 the National Occupational Conference has either originated or stimulated considerable investigation and survey in the field of occupational adjustment. This activity is reflected in many of the titles in the bibliography. In the field of industrial psychology and of individual analysis there has been much careful research. The work of Viteles (891, 892), Bingham (860, 873), and Paterson (866) and Darley and others (876) has been outstanding. Bingham's book described and evaluated the most important of the tests, while Paterson gave an account and accounting of their use in the process of helping people to select suitable vocations. Viteles explored the relationships of the individual to his job.

While the psychologists continue to warn against the too literal application of the results of tests, they are apparently on firmer ground than are those who attempt to measure and evaluate the complete guidance process. Kitson (883) pointed out that while "an examination of these investigations shows that workers in vocational guidance continue to maintain an interest in evaluating the success of their efforts, it also shows the kinds of evidence that can be brought to justify them—pitifully insignificant when compared with the momentous aims of vocational guidance. . . . Measurement is applicable, however, in studying the efficacy of means for attaining the ends. One technic can be compared with another and in this way measurement can help us in making our work more effective."

The only detailed treatment of comparative vocational guidance is that of Keller and Viteles (863), in which the programs of seventeen countries are studied critically. Considerable material was brought together by the International Labour Office (861), while extensive bibliographies were prepared by the American Youth Commission (865) and the United States Office of Education (868). Over a period of five or six years Kotschnig (864), while in the midst of European upset, gathered material on the unemployment of university graduates, leading him to make some positive recommendations as to vocational guidance in institutions of higher learning.

Thorndike (889) carried on a ten-year follow-up of children who had been given aptitude tests toward the end of their elementary-school period and came to the conclusion that vocational guidance did not guide. This conclusion raised a storm of criticism from other psychologists, principally on the ground that the tests themselves had no validity and that the major tasks of guidance were not dependent upon aptitude tests. The criteria of vocational success, which were also involved and questioned in the criticisms of Thorndike's work, were discussed in a symposium edited by Hop-

pock (880) who, about the same time, published the results of his intensive survey of a small American community (881), and came to the conclusion that many more people are satisfied with their jobs than is commonly supposed. Paralleling these intensive studies, there have been broad surveys of more or less extensive areas, notably those in Rockland County, New York (879), and Breathitt County, Kentucky (878), two areas of sharply divergent populations. Curiously enough, the fundamental procedures emerging from these investigations have proved to be pretty much the same. Along with these attempts of schoolmen there have been excursions into the field of occupational economics by men concerned with the broader problem of social adjustment. The work of the National Resources Committee (884) and of Davidson and others (877) are national charts for the use of individuals trying to find their way in a largely uncharted nation.

The vocational guidance programs in foreign countries are covered in considerable detail in Keller and Viteles (863), but there are several later publications and a few earlier ones that require special mention. In the field of psychotechnics the outstanding books are still those of Baumgarten (910), Bogen (895), Giese (896), Moede (897), and Poppelreuter (898), although they would all probably be repudiated by the present political regime. *Rassenkunde* has perverted individual analysis into individual discrimination. In Switzerland, Baumgarten (911) continued to study the problem with assiduity and care while progress in that country is regularly recorded in the journal of the association of counselors and others interested in child welfare (912). While the major task of BIET is that of vocational education, considerable attention has been given to vocational guidance, as evidenced by such contributions as that of Filhe of Brazil in the proceedings of the Rome Congress, and that of the Centre Belge d'Orientation Professionnelle in the same volume.



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## Chapter X. Concepts of Education in Czechoslovakia

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## Chapter XI. History of Education in the Far East

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